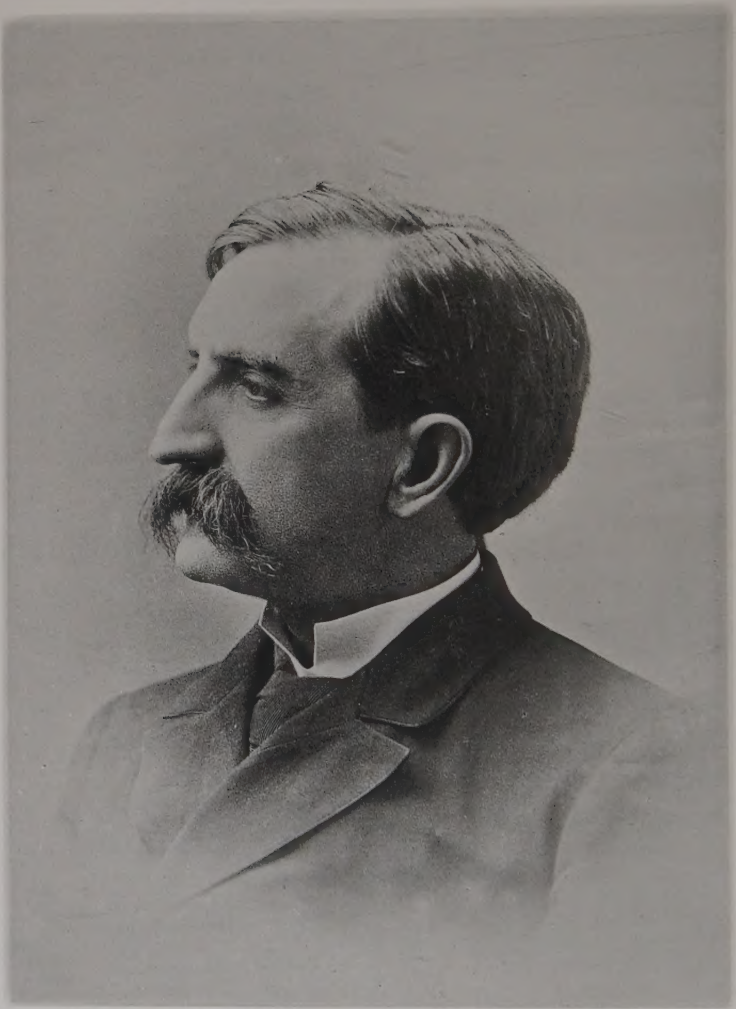
E.H.B.

BOSTON
MEDICAL LIBRARY
8 THE FENWAY.



Yours
Oscar C. McCulloch

PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

NATIONAL CONFERENCE

OF

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION

AT THE

EIGHTEENTH ANNUAL SESSION HELD IN INDIANAPOLIS, IND.,
MAY 13–20, 1891.

EDITED BY
ISABEL C. BARROWS,
Official Reporter of the Conference.

BOSTON
PRESS OF GEO. H. ELLIS, 141 FRANKLIN STREET
1891

BOSTON MEDICAL
APR 17 1911
LIBRARY

HV
85
N3c
1891
copy 1

CATALOGUED
APR 17 1911
J. F. B.

ORGANIZATION OF THE CONFERENCE OF 1891.

President.

OSCAR C. McCULLOCH, Indianapolis, Ind.

Vice-Presidents.

JOHN GLENN, Baltimore, Md.
A. O. WRIGHT, Madison, Wis.
MYRON W. REED, Denver, Col.
OSCAR CRAIG, Rochester, N.Y.
MRS. J. S. SPEAR, JR., San Francisco, Cal.
REV. B. F. DIXON, D.D., Oxford, N.C.

Treasurer.

W. P. LETCHWORTH, Buffalo, N.Y.

Secretaries.

ALEXANDER JOHNSON, Indianapolis, Ind.
LUCIUS C. STORRS, Lansing, Mich.
H. H. HART, St. Paul, Minn.
A. L. WELCH, Denver, Col.
MRS. M. C. GOODLETT, Nashville, Tenn.
MISS ELLEN H. BAILEY, Boston, Mass.

Official Reporter and Editor.

MRS. ISABEL C. BARROWS, 141 Franklin Street, Boston, Mass.

Executive Committee.

OSCAR C. McCULLOCH, Indianapolis, Ind.
DR. CHAS. S. HOYT, Albany, N.Y.
F. H. WINES, Springfield, Ill.
PHILIP C. GARRETT, Philadelphia, Pa.

Council (of the Ex-Presidents).

GEORGE S. ROBINSON, Illinois.
ROELIFF BRINKERHOFF, Ohio.
F. B. SANBORN, Massachusetts.
ANDREW E. ELMORE, Wisconsin.
FREDERICK H. WINES, Illinois.
PHILIP C. GARRETT, Pennsylvania.
W. P. LETCHWORTH, New York.
WM. HOWARD NEFF, Ohio.
H. H. GILES, Wisconsin.
DR. CHAS. S. HOYT, New York.
RT. REV. GEO. D. GILLESPIE, Michigan.

PREFACE.

THE report of the Proceedings of the Eighteenth Annual Conference of Charities and Correction is herewith presented to the public. The meeting was held in Indianapolis, Ind., May 13–20, Rev. Oscar C. McCulloch presiding. As will be seen by the list of delegates and by the report of the Committee on Credentials (p. 396), it was a large gathering. The papers and discussions are given with great fulness; but it is impossible to report in words the good spirit that prevailed among the members, the warm hospitality of the people, and the charm of the music which, thanks to the generosity of the musicians of Indianapolis, opened and closed every session.

The volume contains many valuable papers; and, though the discussions have been greatly condensed, it is believed that the main points of all are given. No space was found for abstracts of the reports of the sectional meetings, though they were promptly furnished by the respective Secretaries. It has been suggested that in future provision should be made for the publication of such reports. A new committee to report this year was one on "The Co-operation of Women in the Management of Charitable, Penal, and Correctional Institutions." The table of contents will show at a glance the general scope of the Conference, and the names of the specialists who took part.

For the first time the entire volume has been stereotyped, the demand for the Proceedings justifying this plan. The Treasurer's report, page 414, gives the list of volumes still on hand.

The next Conference will be held in Denver, Col., in June, 1892; President, Rev. Myron W. Reed.

NOVEMBER, 1891.

NOTE.

THIS Report may be ordered of the editor, Mrs. Isabel C. Barrows, 141 Franklin Street, Boston, Mass. Price per copy, cloth $1.50, paper $1.25, with discounts as follows : ten copies and less than fifty, ten per cent. ; fifty copies and less than two hundred, twenty-five per cent. ; two hundred copies or over, forty per cent. The Proceedings of former years may also be ordered from Mrs. Barrows, who will be glad to furnish such as are still in print at the same prices.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.

PAGE

PORTRAIT OF OSCAR C. MCCULLOCH, PRESIDENT OF EIGHTEENTH CONFERENCE.

PREFACE, ... iii

TABLE OF CONTENTS, ... v

OFFICERS OF THE CONFERENCE FOR 1892, ... ix

COMMITTEES FOR 1892, ... x

I. OPENING SESSION:

Address of Hugh H. Hanna, Chairman of Local Committee, . . 1
" Hon. A. P. Hovey, ... 2
" Hon. Thomas Sullivan, ... 2
" W. P. Fishback, ... 4
" F. B. Sanborn, ... 7
" John Glenn, ... 8
" Miss Clara Barton, ... 9
" President Oscar C. McCulloch, ... 10

II. CONFERENCE SERMON:

Work for the Day and Work for All the Days, by Rev. Myron W. Reed, ... 20

III. PUBLIC OUTDOOR RELIEF:

Arguments in Favor of Public Outdoor Relief, by I. F. Wright, 28
C. H. Baker, ... 31
Mrs. M. J. Lilly, ... 32
J. Q. Adams, ... 34
Arguments against Public Outdoor Relief, by J. Nevin Hill, . . 36
H. C. Taylor, ... 37
R. D. M'Gonnigle, ... 38
C. R. Henderson, ... 39
Levi L. Barbour, ... 41
E. O. Holden, ... 46
Mrs. James M. Codman, ... 46
Charity: How is its Work best done? by Rt. Rev. Francis S. Chatard, ... 50
Discussion on Outdoor Relief, ... 314

PAGE

IV. HOSPITALS:

Hospital Cleanliness, by Hal C. Wyman, M.D., ... 53
Discussion on Hospitals, ... 352, 356

V. THE CARE OF THE INSANE:

The Care and Treatment of the Insane, by W. B. Fletcher, M.D., . 62
The Commitment of the Insane, by Dr. A. R. Moulton, ... 68
Voluntary or Self-commitment to Insane Hospitals, by Richard Dewey, M.D., ... 71
The Wisconsin System of County Care of the Chronic Insane, by H. H. Giles, ... 78
The New York Law for the State Care of the Insane, by Oscar Craig, ... 85
Discussion on Care of the Insane, ... 319

VI. THE CARE OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED:

Report of Committee on Custodial Care of Adult Idiots, by William B. Fish, M.D., Chairman, ... 98
Colony Care for Adult Idiots, by George H. Knight, ... 107
Discussion on Care of Imbeciles, ... 331

VII. CHARITY ORGANIZATION:

Report of the Committee on the Organization of Charities, by Hannah M. Todd, Chairman, ... 109
The Relation of Charity Organization to Social Problems, by George D. Holt, ... 118
Discussion on Charity Organization, ... 360

VIII. THE CHILD PROBLEM:

The Child Problem in Cities, by John H. Finley, ... 124
The Care of Delinquent Children, by Homer Folks, ... 136
The Illinois Industrial Training School for Boys, by Oscar L. Dudley, ... 145
The Economic View of Preventive Work among Children, by Charles D. Kellogg, ... 151
Discussion on the Child Problem in Cities, ... 324

IX. STATE BOARDS OF CHARITIES:

Report of the Committee on State Boards of Charities, by M. D. Follett, Chairman, ... 154
A Board of State Charities: How it looks to a New Member, by John R. Elder, ... 162
Discussion on State Boards, ... 369

X. PUBLIC CHARITIES IN EUROPE:

An Address given before the Conference on Sunday Night, May 17, by F. B. Sanborn, ... 167

XI. IMMIGRATION:

PAGE

Report of Committee on Immigration, by S. C. Wrightington, . . 187
The Restriction of Immigration, by Hon. Cadwalader Biddle, . . 197
Discussion on Immigration, ... 385

XII. PENAL AND REFORMATORY SYSTEMS:

Report of the Committee on Penal and Reformatory Systems, by Eugene Smith, Charles A. Collin, and Charlton T. Lewis, . . 214
The Leading Principles of Modern Prison Science, by C. A. Collin, 214
Recent Ohio Legislation, by Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, ... 220
Discussion on Prison Systems, ... 378

XIII. THE DEFECTIVE CLASSES:

A Paper by A. O. Wright, ... 222
Discussion.

XIV. WOMEN IN CHARITY AND REFORM:

The Co-operation of Women in Philanthropic and Reformatory Work, by Mrs. Virginia T. Smith, ... 230
Discussion on Co-operation of Women, ... 337

XV. IN MEMORIAM:

Tributes to Dr. Albert G. Byers, by Rev. F. H. Wines, ... 242
F. B. Sanborn, ... 250
Gen. R. Brinkerhoff, ... 251
W. P. Letchworth, ... 252
H. H. Hart, ... 553
A. E. Elmore, ... 253
Tributes to Dr. Richard Gundry, by John Glenn, ... 253
Alexander Johnson, ... 254
A. O. Wright, ... 255

XVI. REPORTS FROM STATES:

Report of the Committee, ... 256

XVII. MINUTES AND DISCUSSIONS:

First Session, Wednesday Night, May 13, 1891, ... 303
Second Session, Thursday Morning, May 14, ... 305
Third Session, Thursday Night, May 14, ... 313
Fourth Session, Friday Morning, May 15, ... 318
Fifth Session, Friday Night, May 15, ... 324
Sixth Session, Saturday Morning, May 16, ... 330
Seventh Session, Saturday Night, May 16, ... 337
Eighth and Ninth Sessions, Sunday, May 17, ... 345
Tenth Session, Monday Morning, May 18, ... 348
Eleventh Session, Monday Night, May 18, ... 359

PAGE

Twelfth Session, Tuesday Morning, May 19, ... 367
Thirteenth Session, Tuesday Night, May 19, ... 376
Fourteenth Session, Wednesday Morning, May 20, ... 384
Fifteenth Session, Wednesday Night, May 20, ... 393

Treasurer's Report, ... 413
List of Delegates, ... 417
List of Officers and Committees for 1891, ... 423
Members of State Boards of the United States, ... 427
Index of Speakers and Writers, ... 430
Index of Subjects, ... 432

ORGANIZATION OF THE CONFERENCE OF 1892.

President.

REV. MYRON W. REED, Denver, Col.

Vice-Presidents.

H. H. HART, Minnesota.
JOHN GLENN, Maryland.
DR. ARTHUR J. BROWN, Oregon.
MRS. JOSEPH S. SPEAR, JR., California.
A. O. WRIGHT, Wisconsin.
MISS CLARA BARTON, District of Columbia.

Secretaries.

ALEXANDER JOHNSON, Indiana.
A. G. WARNER, District of Columbia.
A. L. WELCH, Colorado.

Treasurer.

WILLIAM P. LETCHWORTH, New York.

Official Reporter and Editor.

ISABEL C. BARROWS, Boston, Mass.

Executive Committee.

PRESIDENT MYRON W. REED, Chairman.
H. H. HART, Minnesota.
REV. THOMAS J. UZZELL, Colorado.
REV. CHARLES W. WENDTE, California.
HIRAM S. SHURTLEFF, Massachusetts.

GEORGE S. ROBINSON, Illinois.
ROELIFF BRINKERHOFF, Ohio.
F. B. SANBORN, Massachusetts.
ANDREW E. ELMORE, Wisconsin.
FREDERICK H. WINES, Illinois.
PHILIP C. GARRETT, Pennsylvania.
W. P. LETCHWORTH, New York.
WM. HOWARD NEFF, Ohio.
H. H. GILES, Wisconsin.
DR. CHAS. S. HOYT, New York.
RT. REV. GEO. D. GILLESPIE, Michigan.
OSCAR C. McCULLOCH, Indiana.

State Corresponding Secretaries.

Alabama.....Dr. Peter Bryce, Tuskaloosa.
Arizona.....Dr. Thomas Darlington, Bisbee.
California.....S. B. Mosher, San Francisco.
Colorado.....J. S. Appel, Denver.
Delaware.....Mrs. A. D. Warner, Wilmington.
District of Columbia.....A. G. Warner, Washington.
Florida.....H. S. Elliott, Tallahassee.
Georgia.....Rev. George L. Chaney, Atlanta.
Idaho.....
Illinois.....John W. Whipp, Springfield.
Indiana.....Alexander Johnson, Indianapolis.
Indian Territory.....Robert R. W. Hill, Muskogee.
Iowa.....Dr. Jennie McCowan, Davenport.
Kansas.....T. F. Rhodes.
Kentucky.....B. B. Huntoon, Louisville.
Louisiana.....John A. Kearny, New Orleans.
Maine.....Mrs. L. M. N. Stevens, Portland.
Maryland.....John M. Glenn, Baltimore.
Massachusetts.....Dr. Albert R. Moulton, Boston.
Michigan.....L. C. Storrs, Lansing.
Minnesota.....H. H. Hart, St. Paul.
Missouri.....T. P. Holly, Kansas City.
Montana.....Mrs. D. F. Hatch, Big Timber.
Nebraska.....J. A. Gillespie, Omaha.
Nevada.....Fred. Fairbanks, Dayton.
New Hampshire.....Dr. Irving M. Watson, Concord.
New Jersey.....Dr. Ezra M. Hunt, Trenton.
New York.....C. D. Kellogg, New York.
North Carolina.....Rev. T. C. Willson.
North Dakota.....Dr. O. W. Archibald, Jamestown.
Ohio.....John G. Doren, Columbus.
Oregon.....W. R. Walpole, Salem.
Pennsylvania.....Cadwalader Biddle, Philadelphia.
Rhode Island.....W. W. Chapin, Providence.
South Dakota.....
South Carolina.....J. L. Vass, Greenville.
Tennessee.....R. R. Caldwell, Nashville.
Texas.....Benjamin McCulloch.
Utah.....Mrs. Cornelia G. Paddock, Salt Lake City.
Vermont.....Dr. Joseph Draper, Brattleboro.
Virginia.....Dr. J. B. Taylor, Lexington.
Washington.....Henry Oliver, Tacoma.
West Virginia.....Nathan L. Goff, West Virginia.
Wisconsin.....
Wyoming.....

STANDING COMMITTEES.

On Reports from States.

Alexander Johnson.....Indianapolis, Ind. L. C. Storrs.....Lansing, Mich.
John H. Finley.....21 University Place, New York, N.Y.

On Preventive and Defensive Measures against Pauperism and Crime.

Dr. Chas. S. Hoyt.....Albany, N.Y.
Laban Pratt.....Boston, Mass.
Rev. J. L. Milligan.....Allegheny, Pa.
Dr. James L. Wilson.....Greenfield, Ohio
Rev. Henry Hopkins.....Kansas City, Mo.
Mrs. J. M. Flower.....Chicago, Ill.

On the Commitment and Detention of the Insane.

Dr. Stephen Smith, 574 Madison Ave., New York.
M. D. Follet.....Marietta, Ohio
Fred. H. Wines.....Springfield, Ill.
Peter Bryce, M.D.....Tuscaloosa, Ala.
John W. Willes.....St. Paul, Minn.

On Care and Classification of the Insane.

R. S. Dewey, M.D., Chairman.....Kankakee, Ill.
H. H. Giles.....Madison, Wis.
Oscar Craig.....Rochester, N.Y.
H. A. Tobey, M.D.....Toledo, Ohio
A. R. Moulton, M.D. .....Boston, Mass.
W. P. Jones, M.D. .....Nashville, Tenn.
G. Vivian, M.D.....Oakland, Cal.
Dr. Jennie McCowen .....Davenport, Ia.
John R. Elder.....Indianapolis, Ind.

On Kindergarten Work and the Placing Out of Children.

Rev. S. G. Smith.....St. Paul, Minn.
Mrs. C. R. Lowell.....New York, N.Y.
Mrs. Sarah D. Cooper.....San Francisco, Cal.
Mrs. Virginia T. Smith.....Hartford, Conn.
Miss M T. Battle.....Nashville, Tenn.
J. H Mills.....Thomasville, N.C.
Homer Folks.....Philadelphia, Pa.

On the Colony Plan for the Care of All Grades of the Feeble-minded.

George H. Knight, M.D.....Lakeville, Conn.
S. S. Peirson.....Newark, N.J.
Dr. J. A. Eskridge.....Denver, Col.
Dr. W. M. Fernald.....Waltham, Mass.
W. W. Reed, M.D.....Jefferson, Wis.
Miss Mattie Gundry.....Owings Mills, Md.
Dr. Edgar A. Osborne.....Santa Clara, Cal.

On Co-operation of Women in the Management of Charitable, Penal, and Correctional Institutions.

Mrs. A. B. Richardson.....Lowell, Mass.
Mrs. E. B. Fairbanks.....Milwaukee, Wis.
Miss Mary E. Richmond.....Baltimore, Md.
Mrs. A. L. D'Arcambal.....Detroit, Mich.
Francis Wayland.....New Haven, Conn.
Charles Parrott.....Columbus, Ohio
Mrs. J. S. Sperry.....Denver, Col.
Mrs. A. B. Gove.....Oakland, Cal.

On Charity Organization.

Geo. B. Buzelle.....Brooklyn, N.Y.
Miss Hannah M. Todd.....Lynn, Mass.
A. G. Warner.....Washington, D.C.
Rev. C. A. Henderson.....Detroit, Mich.
P. W. Ayers.....Cincinnati, Ohio
W. G. Steele.....Portland, Ore.
Mrs. A. Jacobs.....Denver, Col.
Mrs. Nettie F. Howard.....Davenport, Ia.

On State Boards of Charities.

Wm. P. Letchworth.....Buffalo, N.Y.
Geo D. Gillespie.....Grand Rapids, Mich.
Andrew Elmore.....Fort Howard, Wis.
Henry Stone.....Boston, Mass.
Rev. W. F. Slocum.....Colorado Springs, Col.
Rev. T. L. Eliot.....Portland, Ore.
J. F. Ball.....Wilmington, Del.
G. W. Crossley.....Fort Madison, Ia.

On Reformatory Work.

Ira C. Otterson.....Jamesburg, N.J.
Theo. D. Kanouse.....Sioux Falls, S. Dak.
Geo. W. Johnson.....Brookfield, Mass.
Dr. Walter Lindley.....Whittier, Cal.
W. C. Kilvington.....Nashville, Tenn.
Rev. James H. Nutting.....Howard, R.I.
Miss M. S. Elder.....Indianapolis, Ind.

On Immigration and Migration between States.

F. B. Sanborn.....Concord, Mass.
Dr. Charles S. Hoyt.....Albany, N.Y.
Levi L. Barbour.....Detroit, Mich.
Rev. J. L. Leucht.....New Orleans, La.
Rev. S. A. Eliot.....Denver, Col.
Brilsford P. Flint.....San Francisco, Cal.
N. J. Batchelder.....Concord, N.H.

On the "Indian Policy" in its Relation to Pauperism and Crime.

Philip C. Garrett.....Philadelphia, Pa.
Gen. S. C. Armstrong.....Hampton, Va.
Gen. Eli S. Parker.....New York, N.Y.
Rev. R. W. Hill.....Muskogee, Ind. Ter.
Miss Alice Fletcher.....Washington, D.C.
Miss Anna L. Dawes.....Pittsfield, Mass.
Capt. R. H. Pratt.....Carlisle, Pa.

On Plans of Buildings for Public Institutions.

Dr. Hal. C. Wyman.....Detroit, Mich.
A. O. Wright.....Madison, Wis.
Dr. W. B. Fletcher.....Indianapolis, Ind.
Simpson Ely.....Kansas City, Mo.
Dr. O. W. Archibald.....Jamestown, N. Dak.
H. H. Hart.....St. Paul, Minn.
Albert S. White.....Columbus, O.

BOSTON MEDICAL
APR 17 1911
LIBRARY

I.

Opening Session.

INTRODUCTORY ADDRESSES.

ADDRESS OF WELCOME.

BY MR. HUGH H. HANNA, CHAIRMAN OF THE LOCAL COMMITTEE.

Ladies and Gentlemen of the Convention,— Before introducing the speakers of the evening, it is indeed very pleasant for me to avail myself of the opportunity of addressing a few words of welcome to you on behalf of my neighbors and friends, the citizens of Indianapolis. The people of this community understand your purpose in assembling here. We understand the motive that impels you to come so far and to devote your time. In response to this we extend the right hand of fellowship to those who would not alone pour oil into the wounds of the sore in body and spirit, not alone lift the fallen by the wayside, but would seek the means of preventing unhappy conditions, and to hold to an estate of self-respect and happiness, so far as possible, those who by circumstance, surrounding, or weakness are not permitted to enjoy the full measure of life's privileges. I am happy to stand as representative of the expression of the sentiment of my people. With my hand upon the pulse of my neighbors, it is my privilege to know that the heart beats with a stout throb of welcome to the doers of noble things.

With the entire country, this people enjoys the results and influences of your work. Every year it is gathering strength, and reaches further and touches new sympathies; and, as the light breaks into warm rays that open hearts to human sympathy, so new recruits are brought to the army of those thoughtful of the wants of the unfortunate.

This education leads up to purer things, and already the Nation, State, county, and township are falling into the line of higher motives; and the day is not distant when the care of the common-

wealth for the hopelessly unfortunate will be inspired by the watchword of this Convention: "As a father stands in the midst of his household and says, 'What is best for my children?' so we are to stand in the world and say, 'What is best for my brotherhood?'"

ADDRESS OF HON. A. P. HOVEY, GOVERNOR OF INDIANA.

Delegates of the National Conference of Charities and Correction,— It is with pleasure that I, as Governor of the State, welcome you to Indiana, and to the city of Indianapolis. It has been said that the laborer is worthy of his hire, and I am sure such must be your case when you labor for the fallen and the destitute. You have come here, however, without fee or reward, and in obedience to the commands of no organization, to study means to aid and lift the fallen. It is a noble work.

If you, by your humane labors, can lift but one straw from the miserable, down-trodden, and oppressed, it will weigh as mountains in your favor. In a Christian and civilized country the charge should never be truthfully made that "I was an hungered and ye gave me no meat, thirsty and ye gave me no drink, naked and ye clothed me not, sick and in prison and ye visited me not." Charges of this kind cannot be made against you. This State and its counties are now expending over two millions annually for charities and correction. If you can advise us how to use that money better for the cause of humanity, you will confer a great blessing, not only upon the State, but upon the people. I come not to lecture, but to welcome you to the State.

ADDRESS OF HON. THOMAS SULLIVAN, MAYOR OF INDIANAPOLIS.

Delegates of the National Conference of Charities and Correction,— You have come from all parts of the country for the purpose of consulting together in this city. No personal, selfish, individual reasons have brought you here, but you have come because you know that all about you are misery, sorrow, suffering, and wretchedness. You have come because you know that individual effort, no matter how well directed it may be, no matter how zealous it may be, is not able to cope with organized wickedness. Therefore, have you come in order that you may consult one with another, and if any have wisdom, or experience, or plan, or method, it may become the common

property of all, and the forces of good be thereby organized, be thereby concentrated, so that they may contend successfully with the forces of evil. Knowing these things to be true, knowing this to be the object of your coming, and the object and purpose of your consultation, the city of Indianapolis not only welcomes you earnestly, truly, and sincerely, but she feels honored that such a conference as this is being held within her borders.

It has been part of my duty for more than a year to be present each day in the police court of this city. I am quite certain I can say nothing to you who have made the needs and sufferings of humanity your study,— I can say nothing to such as you that will be new in regard to the police court of a city; but I believe that whatever I may say in regard to that court will be new, and will be, perhaps, surprising, to the great majority of people who hear it. By some strange circumstance the popular idea seems to be that a police court is where smiles and jokes and laughter are not out of place. I am not able to know why this is the popular idea, but it seems to be true. On the contrary, if there is a place on earth where sighs and tears and moans not only ought to be heard, but are heard, it is the police court. In it humanity pays a portion of its earthly penalty for its sins. Into that court there comes, day after day, year after year, a never-ceasing, never-ebbing, constantly flowing stream of misery and wretchedness and wickedness that is beyond the power of any one to describe, unless it be to say, Is it possible that men and women, created in the image of God, can have come so low?

There is one thing about this court,— and it is because of that that I have spoken of the subject at all; that is, with the regularity of the calendar, after a certain definite number of days, the same people come into that court-room as defendants. You get acquainted with their faces, and you say that man or that woman had his day of liberty, his day of sin, and is here for the purpose of paying the penalty. The defendant takes his penalty, a certain definite number of days in the workhouse, known to him as definitely as to the judge who gives the sentence, and he takes the punishment as a receipt in full for the crime committed. He serves, is discharged, and by his discharge believes he has squared the account, that he owes the world nothing, that he has paid the penalty of his crime, and he is free to again break the law, if he shall see fit. At any rate, there is no obligation upon him not to break it, providing he is willing to pay the penalty.

The name of this organization is "Charities and Correction." In this State, prisons, workhouses, and jails are places of reformation primarily, not places of punishment; but their principal object is reform. If this organization can devise means by which these institutions may become, as a matter of fact, reformatory places of correction, as they are in matter of law, then you will have performed a great and noble deed, and will have taken a long step toward lessening the number of people that make up that stream of corruption that goes into the police courts of this country. There is one thing certain,— children can be reformed; and the legislature of Indiana did a grand thing and a courteous thing when it passed a law authorizing the circuit judges of Indiana to appoint boards that could go into a household, and, if they found the father and mother not worthy to rear citizens of this republic, then, acting with judicial approval, take the children and lift them from wretchedness and misery. They have the right to put them where they can get pure air and pure food, good morals and correct surroundings. Under such circumstances as that a child will reform himself. I trust during this week your deliberations may be of such a character that the misery, wretchedness, and wickedness that are upon all sides of you may to some extent be lessened. I thank you.

ADDRESS OF MR. W. P. FISHBACK.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen of the Conference,— Poverty, disease, and vice are the three great ills that afflict mankind. These evils can be traced to man's ignorance and misconduct. Is it vain to hope that a time will come when, under the impulse of human sympathy and the guidance of an intelligent philanthropy, these evils shall be effaced,— when knowledge shall supplant ignorance and sympathy shall take the place of selfishness?

The pious notion once entertained by many, and still cherished by a few, that human suffering is an essential part of the Creator's plan, that the sharp contrasts between pinching poverty and inordinate wealth are to be perpetuated, finds no lodgment in the minds of enlightened and thoughtful men. Humanity to-day faces the problem of human suffering with high hope and undaunted courage. This large assemblage of men and women, dedicated to the work of alleviating suffering and to the nobler task of preventing it, is a splendid testimony to the efficacy and power of human sympathy.

The members of the charity organizations here represented, irrespective of creed and party shibboleth, united for and in the name of our common humanity, declare themselves to be adherents to the faith that by intelligent human endeavor and by the resistless might of love man's past errors may be retrieved, and poverty, disease, and vice abolished, as the curse of human slavery has vanished in the presence of the quickened conscience of mankind.

Hitherto philanthropic effort has been, in the main, empirical, erratic, impulsive. There has been a zeal, but a zeal not according to knowledge. Your organizations deal with social problems in a scientific spirit. While you utterly reject the cold and hard *laissez-faire* philosophy of Mr. Herbert Spencer on the one hand, you are no less opposed to the equally false and fatalistic pessimism of certain ecclesiastics, who affect to see in the great spectacle of the world's misery a wise scheme for the edification of a few select saints who are to be caught up some fine day and whisked away from their cushioned pews to paradise,— the sufferings of their less fortunate fellow-mortals serving meanwhile to enhance their own felicity. In the language of Lord Jeffrey, "This will never do." Disease, vice, poverty, are not preordained. They do not happen. "Somebody's blundered." These ills have their sources in some causes known or unknown. The plain duty, therefore, the duty you have undertaken to perform, is to seek, discover, expose, and destroy the cause. This is philanthropy upon a rational basis.

It would be tedious, if not impertinent, in this presence, for me to attempt to recount the origin, progress, and successes of the various phases of charity here represented. It may not be amiss, however, for a brief space, to allude to some of the more conspicuous, if not the most important, movements in the field of philanthropy, in the hope that a survey of what has been already done may strengthen our hearts and hands for further efforts.

One of the most signal triumphs in the line of charitable endeavor is found in the history of the treatment of the insane. For thousands of years this form of human suffering has challenged the attention of the world. In its various forms of manifestation this disease is found in all climes and among all races of men. What to do with its unfortunate victims is a question that has puzzled the Greek and the barbarian, the savage as well as the civilized. Philosophers, philanthropists, and physicians have bent the energies of their minds to its solution. It is amazing to note how far the ancients progressed upon

the lines of the humane theory now almost universally accepted as correct; and it is astounding to learn how brutal and irrational were the methods which until recent years were practised and approved by the ablest and brightest men of the medical profession. We are now going back to the ancients, and learning from them that to provide lively company and amusements, and, above all, to give them the utmost kindness of treatment, is the right way to deal with the victims of mental alienation. By what strange perversity was it that, under a civilization calling itself Christian, the very humanities of an enlightened Paganism were discarded? It was for France and England in the midst of the enlightenment of the sixteenth century to disgrace mankind and dishonor Christianity by their inhumanity to the insane. The annals of the Bedlam Hospital in London, and of the Bicêtre of Paris, in which filth, chains, stripes, and starvation were the portion of their inmates, furnish a startling background in the picture of a civilization and society which produced the philosophy of Bacon and the poetry of Shakspere. Indeed, it was late in the eighteenth century before effective measures of reform were begun. Dr. Benjamin Rush, for many years the foremost man in the medical profession of America, and one of the noblest patriots of the Revolution,— a man whom one should criticise almost on bended knees,— was a monument of professional ignorance in this matter. In a treatise published by him in 1812 on the "Diseases of the Mind," which was accepted as the very highest authority, the learned doctor advanced a most remarkable theory. He argued that because refractory horses were subdued by being kept from lying down and sleeping, and wild elephants were tamed by starvation, therefore an insane patient should be deprived of rest, food, and sleep until reason returned. A reputable physician of this day who would prescribe such a regimen for a patient would be adjudged a lunatic himself.

Victor Hugo says he who has seen the suffering of men has seen nothing, he should see the suffering of women; that he who has seen the suffering of women has seen nothing, he should see the suffering of little children. The suffering children have appealed to you with the irresistible might of weakness, and the appeal has not been in vain. The laws which once gave to parents the absolute irresponsible power to punish, persecute, and kill their children have been blotted out. At your solicitation the legislature and the courts step in between parent and child, and assert the higher law of humanity in behalf of helpless infancy.

Under pressure of a public opinion generated and propagated by such assemblages as this, we have seen many abuses disappear, and many false notions overthrown. The ancient and rather fusty maxim that human nature, especially the meaner part of it, is and always will be the same, and that God for some inscrutable purpose desires that greed, cruelty, and vice shall always afflict his creatures, is now almost universally discarded by civilized peoples; and we have come to believe that it is for the interest of society as well as the criminal that we should not break down the bridge by which the culprit might wish to return to an honest life.

But time would fail me to tell of your beneficent triumphs over ignorance and prejudice. Verily, under your kindly ministrations, the dumb speak, the lame walk, the blind receive their sight, intelligence lights up the face of the imbecile, a ray of hope illumines the prisoner's cell, the lunatic stands clothed and in his right mind, and the children of poverty and oppression greet you with benedictions. The spirit of charity walks abroad, and at the touch of her magic wand State lines disappear, sectarian differences are abolished, and the universal brotherhood of man is made manifest.

You come to a city whose people have been no laggards in the work in which you are engaged. It is my privilege and pleasure, in addition to the official welcomes which have been so gracefully tendered to you by our honored Governor and worthy Mayor, to offer to you the sincere and cordial greetings of the city of Indianapolis.

RESPONSE OF MR. F. B. SANBORN.

Your Excellency, Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,— I suppose I stand before you to exercise the sad prerogative of age. With four or five of my associates whom I see on the floor, I was present at the First Conference of Charities in 1874, in New York, when but four States were represented. Now delegates from more than thirty are here. I think the number of persons actually in attendance at that First Conference did not exceed fifteen. Our number was so small that at first we associated ourselves with a larger organization, and under its umbrella presented ourselves to a cold and rather rainy world. We continued to grow for a few years slowly, until we came to Cincinnati; and from that time forward the Conference, instead of being a little child led by its mother, the Social Science organization, became a well-grown youth, ready to maintain a separate organiza-

tion. I suppose to-night we have the largest number present we have ever had at any first night, and I understand many more are to come.

The gentlemen who have spoken, and to whom I wish to return thanks in the name of the members of the Conference, have introduced to us several subjects which find a response in the mind and in the heart of our members. As you will see by our long program, we propose to take up these subjects with others; and we hope to present them in a manner at the same time so attractive and so suggestive that we shall deserve the compliments which you have bestowed on us collectively, and which individually we always seek to disown.

RESPONSE OF MR. JOHN GLENN.

Your Excellency, Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen,— It is a very high honor which has been conferred upon me, one of the later children of this Conference, to speak for the Eighteenth Conference of Charities and Correction. When we look into your faces, when we feel that in coming here we put our hands into yours and place our hearts next to yours, we feel encouraged by the possibilities which lie before us in such a meeting. The best thing that I can do to give you some little idea of the impression which this Conference has left upon me is to refer you to the history of the results of the Conference in the last two years. It was my pleasure to go to San Francisco to attend the meeting held there. I crossed the continent with seventy-five or eighty others who, with singleness of heart, were on their way to attend this gathering. The reflex influence of that Conference was felt in Denver. The new State Board of Charities in Colorado grew most certainly out of the inspiration of that Conference. The next year we had the great pleasure of receiving the Conference at Baltimore; and we felt its inspiration among the people, in the press, in the churches, and in the institutions of charity. Under your worthy President, this work is going to be carried still farther here. I thank you on the part of the Conference most heartily for the invitation you gave us and the reception you have accorded us. When I think that we are a voluntary association, which has no other aim but that of benefiting humanity; and when I think of the immense possibility that this city is about to give us for carrying on our work, when I see the influence that this Conference is exerting throughout the country,— I feel sure

that the Eighteenth Conference of Charities and Correction will surpass all that have preceded it. Again I thank you, ladies and gentlemen, for the reception you have given us.

RESPONSE OF MISS CLARA BARTON.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,— I am more grateful than I can express for the opportunity granted me to say how thankful I am for the great honor and benefit that this Conference has conferred upon my sister women; that it entered so fully into the hearts and heads of the founders of this, one of the best organizations of this fair land, to invite so cordially and so equally to its work the women of this country. It has given them broad privilege to stand shoulder to shoulder and to walk side by side in this great work, to which, perhaps, their own courage would scarcely have led them alone. They are glad, I know, that I should express that gratitude for them.

I am also glad that I may express to the people of this goodly city the thanks, not only of the women, but of the whole Association, for the welcome it offers us. This is the city of great charities, as well as the home of Presidents. I, from Washington, want to thank Indianapolis for the gift of the family which it has given us,—lent, you may say,— to take charge of the affairs of the nation. They have brought to us a wise administration and a pure court.

The most important thing for our American people is a broader and more thorough education of the masses. As far as that can be gained, so far we trust shall the need of both charities and correction fall away.

Miss Barton detailed the plan of the National Chautauqua of Glen Echo in Washington, which she looked upon as one of the greatest foundations for education that could possibly come to the capital of the nation, and invited the delegates to the opening of the institution.

Some one has told me, said Miss Barton, in closing, that the red flag, the emblem of the Red Cross Association, hangs directly over my head, where I cannot see it. I thank you. This is only one more proof that the best blessings that come to us in life we are not always allowed to see.

PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

STATE AND NATIONAL REGISTRATION OF THE DEPENDENT, THE DEFECTIVE, AND THE DELINQUENT CLASSES.

BY OSCAR C. M'CULLOCH.

I take pleasure in welcoming this Conference to Indianapolis. You are met in the exact centre of the industrial and railroad interests of the country. To what better place could you come to do the work for which you are appointed? From what centre could influences for good radiate so widely?

It is a pleasure to meet again the old friends, and exchange greetings. It is a pleasure to welcome so many new friends. This is a cause which appeals to a universal sentiment, which wins to itself new recruits, whose chorus never grows weak.

We have met here in the true unity of the spirit and the bond of peace. "Diversity of worship," said the Persian, "has divided the human race into seventy-two religions. From all their dogmas I have selected one,— divine love." "The entire world shall be populous with that action of thine which saves one soul from despair," said Omar Khayyám. Said Epictetus, "The universe is but one great city, full of beloved ones, divine and human, by nature endeared to each other." And Beecher: "As a father stands in the midst of his household and says, 'What is best for my children?' so we are to stand in the world and say, 'What is best for my brotherhood?'"

I make much of this fact of unity in the midst of diversity, for it is to me one of the most beautiful of the results of our work. This is its reaction on those who work in the same cause, who mind the same things. We are not many, but one. We do not differ, save superficially; and little by little we recognize the truth of that deep word of the early Christian Father,— "No man can be blamed for calling God's name in such language as he best knows."

As we note on every hand signs of spring, in the newly come bird and the many flowers, so we may note signs of spring in charity and reform. These will be indicated to us in the varied reports of the committees. Everywhere there is an increased and intelligent interest. Little by little the scattered groups of societies, working here

and there on some one phase of the great charity problem, become conscious that they are part of a vast movement extending over the whole country,— indeed, throughout the whole world,— working kindly, scientifically, to relieve or to cure those who are troubled in mind, broken in courage, defective in intellect, neglected by parents, or gone wrong in life,— not only to relieve, but to anticipate the conditions which bring about this trouble.

I note with regret the abolition of the State Board in Wisconsin, and the official falling out of our long-time fellow-workers in that Board. We trust, however, that they will still be with us in the years that are to come, giving us the benefit of their experience and the strength of their counsel.

Since we last met, our friend, Dr. A. G. Byers, long-time member of this Conference, and more recently its President, has been called up higher. We miss his earnest word, his quick wit, his apt story, his kindly smile. But his life-work goes on. God buries his workmen, but carries on their work. His life is now become part of the great social forces that work for the salvation of the world. He is built into the institutions and sentiments of the State of Ohio and of the country. He has become one of the choir invisible.

A Memorial has been prepared by his friend and associate, Mr. Wines, and an hour has been set apart for memorial exercises.

I wish especially at this time to direct your attention to the need of *State registration of the dependent, the defective, and the delinquent classes.*

The longer one works in this field of charity and correction, where lie scattered about on every hand the divine fragments of humanity, the more one is impressed with the seriousness of the work that is to be done, with its magnitude, and with its complex nature, and the delicate problems that it presents for solution.

In the Pinakothek, or Art Gallery, of Munich is a painting by Karl Piloty,— "Thusnelda in the Triumph of Germanicus." Germanicus Cæsar has just returned from the conquest of the German tribes. He has brought with him the captives and the treasures taken from them. With proud mien and stately step, following the triumphal car of Germanicus, as he moves along the Flaminian Way, past the throne on which Tiberius sits, walks Thusnelda,— a German priestess and war herald,— in chains, her proud head bowed. With her are a large number of captive people, old men, wounded warriors, women, little wondering children. They pass before the emperor;

they pass between the ranks of curious, huzzaing citizens, down into the Forum, then melt away,— some to the depths of the Mamertine prison, there to bathe in its cold spring, and then to die of hunger; others to be offered in the slave-market; some to become thralls or gladiators. But all disappear.

It is pitiful to think that, as our vaunted civilization takes its triumphal way, with the results of industrial and commercial activity, of scientific research, and of literary and artistic accomplishment, there should follow in its train a vast company of ghastly, sorrowful, troubled people, correspondent to those who followed the car of triumph of Germanicus.

Or, taking a later incident, there are those here who remember the grand review in Washington at the close of the war, when down the broad avenue passed in review the regiments which had taken part in that great struggle to preserve our national unity. Old, broken, decimated, lame, weak, sun-burned, with battered flags and ensigns, they passed before the President, then disappeared, melting into the "people" again.

And, when I wish to bring before my mind the work of helpfulness in which we are engaged, I try to call up in imagination a similar procession of those who make up the great army of the defective, the dependent, and the criminal, who pass in silent review. In a certain sense, they are captives of civilization, and march haltingly behind the triumphal car of progress. In another sense, they are the soldiers of labor, who have wrought in the vast struggle of bringing wealth, prosperity, industrial freedom, to our land,— they, and their wards, children, or orphans; or they are those who mistakenly war against it.

In 1880 the census reported 481,240 as belonging to the dependent, defective, and delinquent. This did not include those in jails, nor was it in any way correct as to those receiving outdoor relief. But, taking the figures as they stand, they represent a half-million. Marshalling them in regiments, we should have this result: idiotic, 76,895; insane, 91,997; blind, 48,928; deaf-mutes, 33,665; paupers, 88,665; prisoners, 59,255,— in all, 400,000. Behind these would march the children: deaf, 6,617; blind, 2,032; orphan, 59,161; feeble-minded, 2,472; in the Reform Schools, 11,340,— in all, 81,622. Nor would these include the vast number of children cared for by Children's Aid Societies or the neglected children of the street.

But this number, large as it is, would be immensely swelled by the

more careful statistics of 1890. Mr. Ely, in the *North American Review* for April, 1891, taking the report of this Conference for 1887 as a basis, estimates an average of 250,000 outdoor and 110,000 indoor paupers per year. This is on the authority of Messrs. H. H. Hart and F. B. Sanborn. Mr. Kellogg estimates that three millions have been supported in whole or in part by charity in the United States in any one year.

This will give you in part a conception of the extent of the field in which the modern spirit of charity is working, the immensity of the work that is to be done: to relieve some, to quiet others; to cure these, to provide homes for those; to prevent the evils which have brought them down. It will be seen that here is something more than a question of sentiment, something more than a matter of spasmodic effort or of isolated attempt. It is a work worthy of the thought and effort of a great State, which will employ all its energies and require the expenditure of great amounts of money. If we estimate the loss of such a vast army of dependents in terms of dollars, it would not be less than $50,000,000 of direct loss in cost of maintenance and $50,000,000 additional in loss of productive power. If we should estimate it in terms of happiness, of life missed, of hope extinguished, of burdens borne, the cost is immense. If we consider these as wards of the nation, as pensioners of labor, soldiers, and soldiers' widows and orphans, left by the refluent tide of battle which has made this nation great and strong and free, then the deeper question comes,— Are we doing what we should to care for them in humanly wise ways?

The organization of this work is well worth the consideration of the wise. The subject itself should take its place among the subjects required of young men and women in colleges. It is a work which calls for aid from every man and woman of loving heart and sense of justice.

Once in ten years the government, through its census, reveals to us the number of these various classes. But before the tables of the Census Department were issued they have ceased to be of scientific value because of the growth of these classes. Each year increased amounts are appropriated by States for the care of their benevolent institutions, each year more money is expended by counties for out and in door relief, each year more and larger prisons are built to contain the criminals, each year more appeals are made to the public to sustain the existing charities, and each year sees new ones come to the birth.

The Committee on Reports from States for 1891 has prepared a report, which will be presented to this Conference to-morrow morning. It is in all respects the most complete report yet made to this body; and yet how incomplete it is the committee know better than any one else.

This Conference has attempted each year to gain from its Committee on Reports of States some idea as to the number and condition of the dependent, delinquent, and defective in the various States, of new legislation, of methods of institutions. But the results have never been satisfactory. There has been no central body in which was lodged the necessary information, no careful report as to the facts desired.

The United States government conducts what is called the Geodetic Survey. It draws the lines of configuration, determines the height of our mountains, the direction of our streams, the quantity and quality of our lands, and the possible buried treasures that lie in our mines. In other words, it determines the extent and nature of our resources and of our physical needs. Is there not a need for a similar scientific survey of our philanthropic field?

The great soldier who has just died — Von Moltke — will be known as a man of supreme organizing talent. He reduced war to a science. When the announcement of the declaration of war by France, in 1870, was read to him, it was in the night. He simply said, "Third shelf, twelfth portfolio." In this portfolio were the results of years of patient investigation. He knew France better than any Frenchman, — every road, every railroad, all possible supplies, the conformation of the country. And he knew Germany as well. It was an illustration of superb thinking, of perfect organization. Shall a great State do this for war, and not for peace? Shall we not do for healing and helping what is done for destroying men?

The value of a systematic and scientific registration is seen in the records of the Charity Organization Societies, especially in those of New York, Boston, Buffalo, and Indianapolis. Here, either in books or by means of card catalogues, are gathered a large number of facts bearing on each individual case. These facts, classified, become social data. By means of them we know the number of dependants, the quality of the case, the causes which have induced the need, the best means of relieving the need. By means of them are brought to light the laws which may control abuses, the provident measures by which self-help may be reinstituted. In a word, each individual is

treated as if he were the only one in the world, and yet is treated as part of a whole. Both the general measures for the relief of his class and the special measures for the relief of his own need are set in motion. I regard this as indicating what may be done in the registration of State dependants, defectives, and delinquents.

I propose to introduce into the various States having State Boards of Charity the methods already obtaining in the Charity Organization, — the same careful investigation, registration, classification, — and that these shall be uniform, and shall be made the basis for the annual reports to this Conference, and of a possible National Bureau of Charities and Correction.

My proposition is this: that in the central office of each Board of State Charities there shall be registered the inmates of the various State benevolent and correctional institutions, of all county institutions, and, so far as possible, of all inmates of private institutions; that the main facts with regard to them be kept in a card catalogue; and that these registrations be posted up, from reports of changes, deaths, discharges, escapes, paroles, etc. In short, that the State shall keep as accurate an account of its dependent, defective, and delinquent population as a Charity Organization keeps of those with whom it has to do.

To a certain extent, registration of these classes has already been undertaken by some of the States having Boards of State Charities. Correspondence on this point has elicited the following: —

First, as regards the insane. Massachusetts receives weekly reports from all lunatic hospitals, and has a detailed notice in case of death by violence. In New York the State Commissioner of Lunacy registers all insane, with such changes as may occur. Minnesota keeps no central record of the insane. Michigan receives quarterly reports from asylums and yearly reports from the insane in county poorhouses and elsewhere. New Jersey keeps only the usual hospital records. Wisconsin receives no special reports and keeps no registration. Pennsylvania has a very careful system of registration of its insane in the office of the Commissioner of Lunacy, dating from 1883; receives also reports of discharges, paroles, and deaths. Illinois keeps lists of its insane, but not very thoroughly. Mr. Letchworth writes me that the English Lunacy Board makes quite extended reports on the insane in England and Wales, that the same is done by the Scotch Board for Scotland, and that very unsatisfactory returns are made by the Irish Lunacy Board. I find, then, that Massa-

chusetts, New York, and Pennsylvania are keeping the most careful records and registration of their insane in a central bureau. Indiana has begun the system of the registration of its insane, both in State hospitals and in county asylums, keeping a card catalogue of all its insane, with such general data as will present an outline picture of the case. Monthly reports are received of commitments, discharges, paroles, and deaths, while immediate notification is given the Secretary of the State Board on the death of any patient.

Second, little is done with regard to the registration of the other defectives.

And, third, still less as regards the registration of the dependent. This is not strange. The superintendents of county asylums can rarely be depended upon to report regularly the inmates of their asylums. The population is shifting. And yet something has been done; and, so far as Indiana is concerned, most of its county superintendents have reported the names of the inmates of the asylums.

Fourth, as regards the registration of those in receipt of outdoor relief. This, of course, will be the most difficult of all to secure. The unwillingness to register, the very large number of township trustees, or overseers of the poor, make it difficult to secure valuable reports. And yet, when it is realized that in the States of Ohio and Indiana alone nearly one million dollars is expended in the relief of the outdoor poor, the importance of some careful supervision and registration will be at once seen.

Fifth, the delinquent. Mr. Wines calls my attention to an article in the March number of the *Bulletin* of the French Prison Society, on "Prison Registration," which states that "the commission appointed to suggest amendments to the organization of the Casier Judiciaire met at the office of the Minister of Justice on the 13th of February. It decided that certain convictions, which are not entered upon the register, should be entered there in case of relapse, and that correctional convictions which are not properly to be entered upon the register should be effaced seven years after the prisoner's discharge, in case there is no subsequent conviction. On the 20th of February, at a later meeting of the commission, it was decided to enter upon the register all convictions, with three exceptions, namely: convictions for misdemeanors punishable by fine not exceeding one hundred dollars; sentences to six months' imprisonment, under the 69th article of the penal code; and sentences to one month's imprisonment for any offence other than theft, abuse of confidence, fraud, or an

outrage upon good morals. The commission also reaffirmed a former resolution, declaring that there should never be entered upon the register applications of article 66 of the penal code, nor sentences to police supervision, where there are extenuating circumstances, nor convictions effaced by the rehabilitation of the prisoner, nor judgments for bankruptcies, nor disciplinary judgments not susceptible of erasure in consequence of rehabilitation. Recidivism involves the entry upon the register of all convictions, whatever may have been their character. There is no exception to the rule of registration in the case of foreigners, except when a reciprocal agreement exempts French convicts from similar registration abroad. The registers are entirely private, and no one can see them or obtain a copy of the records, except those who are authorized by law."

It is evident, as will be seen from the report of the Committee on Reports from States on Statistical Agencies: —

1st, that no State keeps complete statistical records.

2d, that there is no uniformity among States as to the few and fragmentary records that are kept.

3d, that there is an absence of scientific method.

In any well-organized Charity Organization Society all these classes would be registered, and all the facts bearing upon the case would be known. Only on such knowledge could there be intelligent action. Is it not evident, then, that here lies before us a vast field into which we must enter? These are the wards of the State. We must know them as a whole and as individuals. We must know the individual history, the characteristics of each one. It is not enough simply to feed them and to determine the per capita cost of food or clothing or shelter. Each one of these must be followed through all the years of his history. From the data furnished from careful individual study comes the knowledge of the laws which govern them, of the conditions in which these classes and manifestations of the perturbed or wandering mind develop, and of the means which must be taken to prevent, to cure, as well as to ameliorate. It is not merely a question of economy: it is a question of sociology. Such reports would be absolutely private, for the use only of those whose business it is to know them. The difficulties in the way are enormous, but they are not insurmountable. The cost would be great, but it would be well worth the expenditure. This will give the dignity of science to our work. It would make possible the use of the comparative method. I believe it would be the means of redeeming our institutions from political control. It would call for the best men.

It is evident that in the Secretaries of our State Boards we have the means of initiating this uniform registration. And I suggest that they shall be made Corresponding Secretaries of their respective States, and that they prepare a plan for securing this registration, with the accompanying data.

Is it too much to expect that a subject so vast, and involving national interests, shall at some time become a matter of national moment?

Riding past the Smithsonian Institution in Washington last year, Mr. Wines made the remark: "When will the subject of charity and reform be taken up seriously by some great philanthropist in the way that John Smithson has taken up natural and physical science? Why should there not be a great department which would give to the consideration of this vast army of the dependent and delinquent that scientific study which it evidently requires?"

Connected with this same question is that of a better system of State reports for our Conference. Comparatively small results thus far have attended the efforts of the Committee on States to secure reports, and this for several reasons. There is no central office in the State in which the desired information is registered. It is very difficult to secure Corresponding Secretaries who have the time for gathering this information.

I suggest for your consideration the following: that the census tables for 1890 of the dependent, defective, and delinquent classes, be printed in each issue of the Proceedings, with such changes as the information gathered by the Committee on States may make necessary. As we well know, the census tables cease to be of present value by the time they are issued; but they are of immense value as a point of departure and as a means of comparison. The Committee on States, working during the interval between Conferences through carefully selected secretaries, can correct these tables up to a certain date in each year,—say May 1. By this time the legislative sessions will have closed, new laws will have been passed, old laws changed, changes in the population known through the reports of the various institutions made to the legislatures, changes in the *personnel* of institution management will have been completed. It has been suggested that the expense of this, so far as the printing is concerned, can easily be met from the sale of the Proceedings to the various business firms interested in the sale of supplies to public institutions, inasmuch as there is no list of institutions or of their officers available for business purposes.

In the work done by this Conference through the past, I recognize the greatest value. I see yet greater possibilities in the future. I do not wish that the Conference shall give itself to piling up columns of figures, but I am convinced that the time has come to conduct a survey of our philanthropic field on as broad lines and by as scientific methods as that of the Geodetic Survey.

The issue of all good government is to secure for the individual his rights. In the mass of loosely organized people which make up an Oriental government, the individual is lost. In the fine organization which characterizes our Western ideas of government, no individual can be lost. In the higher treatment of this subject, from the point of view of love and sympathy, we must remember that each of these who has fallen out by the way in the competitive struggle for life, each of these who has broken down in the social pressure, each of these little ones that has fallen out of some home as a bird out of some nest, each of these wandering minds which through forms and shapes of things goes sounding on its dim and perilous way, each of these defective in mind, each of these lost out in the confusion of first offence, is of value to the human race. There must be none irretrievably lost. A civilization is marked by the completeness of its effort to rescue those lost.

Our Conference was long ago baptized by this name, "The Church of the Divine Fragments"; and the voice of the highest humanity summons us to gather up these fragments, that none be lost.

II.

Conference Sermon.

WORK FOR THE DAY AND WORK FOR ALL THE DAYS.

BY REV. MYRON W. REED.

"Heaven and earth shall pass away; but my words shall not pass away."—MARK xiii. 31.

A savage builds no monuments, endows no hospitals, founds no libraries. He lives for the day. He has no time for digging wells or tree-planting. There is no arbor day for an Indian. The mound-builders and cliff-dwellers, semi-civilized, left faint memorials. Around Casa Grande, Arizona, at the bend of the Gila River, I found fragments of pottery and bits of flint, the work of men's hands, and some irrigating ditches. Ploughing in Wisconsin, I turned up a stone axe. The savage and the barbarian have no eye for the future in the distance. Life is simply a struggle to live. Each day is a battle and a sleep.

Life is not much more than that with most of us. The question is how to get through the day. A man must make camp first. He must be a hewer of wood and drawer of water. Dinner is of great importance, and clothing and sleep. The most of our words are for the hour, the day,—simply the small currency of conversation, as when one says, "Good-morning." There is nothing final about that saying. One has to say it over again each new day. A man who manages to say a memorable thing once a week is a producer. With the most of us months go by, and we say and do nothing that lasts. A large part of life is as monotonous as washing dishes or churning. The having to do nearly all things over again is a wearing thing. And yet that is nine-tenths of life. I think of it when I have to stop to lace my shoe, must undo the tie and do it again. No one is above these humble, time-consuming cares of life. We spend our time doing chores, running about on small errands. "The world is too much

with us." Nathaniel Hawthorne was fortunate: his wife stood between him and the world, and forced off interruption. Nearly as fortunate was Thomas Carlyle. Charles Sumner had the freedom of a race rejected of men in his heart and on his mind; but I am told that he had little or nothing to say to the individual African. The writer of "Good-by, Proud World, I'm going Home," someway contrived not to be president of any Charity Organization Society. None of Emerson's work suggests hurry or worry. It is all as cool and quiet as four o'clock in the morning.

But the most of us must gather up the fragments of our time in which to read and think. The managing editor of a great newspaper, a man of affairs, gathered up the fragments of his broken day, and in these conserved half-hours wrote "The Light of Asia." Who is engaged in any form of charity work who is not at times very weary of the work for the day? The door-bell rings. I am presumably reading Plato's Republic, possibly "The Three Musketeers," but I am reading. I go down and meet a human being who wants something,— at any rate, my time. Similar calls were made on me yesterday, and all the yesterdays; and similar calls will be made to-morrow and the day after to-morrow. I hope that I am a practical Christian. I will do what I can for the need of whoever calls. But I hate to face the proposition that this kind of thing is to go on forever and forever. This latest visitor of mine wanted some light employment in a city where several thousand people are walking up and down seeking light employment. After the interview, I went back to my den and read in the New York *World* that 1,671 Italians (seventy-cents-a-day men) were landed in one day of the week before in New York City,— coming to take the place of Americans who cannot live on seventy cents a day; coming to take the place of Americans who have an appetite for beef, and plenty of it; coming to take the place of people who love light and air and room and clean children. I read the item, and then I began to think that prevention — a closed port — is the thing.

Old Sam Adams did not migrate because the conditions of the colony were hard. He stayed at home and got up a revolution. Shut up the discontent of Europe in Europe, and let it ferment and get up a revolution of its own. God said, "I am tired of kings"; and the earth is saying it, too.

Ignorance, neglect, abuse of power, greed,— these are some of the robbers who infest the Jericho road. These thieves are not utterly

wicked. They know very well that some good Samaritan will come along. Their victim — the man robbed and left half-dead — will not be permitted to die. The robbers are in favor of the good Samaritan. They will do the bruising, and he will do the nursing. They will make holes in him, and he will pour in oil and wine. They will furnish the cripples, and he the crutches. The pauper factories must be shut down.

America pays one-third of the rents of Irish lands. Irish girls, at work in our shops and kitchens, are generous contributors to foreign landlords. Surely, it is perceived that generosity is not what is wanted in the suffering earth, but justice,— plain justice, of the Bible kind. Moses did not need to keep running to the door of his tent to answer the call of distressed Hebrews. He made laws to save his generous soul all the modern trouble, and had time in which to write a few everlasting songs. And he had the heart left in him to sing them. I cannot sing; and, after reading General Booth's book, I wouldn't sing if I could. Where the laws of Moses are obeyed, there are no paupers, no neglected children, no landless people.

In the fall we go to work in our city of Denver and raise a big sum of money for the relief of people, and then the next fall have it all to do again. They slander men who say they will not work. A four-line "ad" in a morning paper of any city will bring a thousand men to work all night tearing up a street. Five dollars a week will command the work of a girl in a city where the commonest board and lodging are five dollars a week.

Much of charity work is work merely for the day. No hope in it, no outcome, no shining future,— it is mending, patching. Clearly, this present society which compels people to be unfortunate is not to continue. We are getting tired of taking care of the victims of human neglect and greed. But we must not pass them by, even if we are tired. There are three methods open to the physician: to provide for the sick man relief for the time, anything to stop the pain, and then the slower way,— going back to the cause, and not tinkering at effect. And a wise physician may combine the two,— do something, anything, for present relief, and also attend to the cause of trouble. When a man is hungry and asks for food, feed him. But in this world there ought to be no hunger that hurts. There is food enough for the whole family. The fault is in the distribution.

I find that Jesus worked at effects and at causes. He attended to individual cases of poverty, but he laid down some social laws that,

obeyed, will do away poverty. "The poor ye have always with you." If that were a prophecy, which it is not, we have done our best, or worst, to fulfil it.

The State was unjust, the Church was unjust, society was unjust, the victim of these was in the presence of Jesus. What will he say to him? "Revolt against Cæsar and the synagogue and society"? Oh, no. These are cruelly wrong, but they are intrenched. Nothing justifies a revolution or a strike but a good reason and success. So Jesus gives the individual special treatment. Life is short and sorrowful. Death is the door to freedom. In my Father's house are many mansions. Bear injustice, bless them that curse you, and die and go home. Within the circumstances that is all that can be done.

There is no use in a few Christian peasants charging the Roman legion or getting under the feet of the Church. Something like that was the dealing of Jesus with the individual. But we are in America, and are thirteen colonies. Then the advice of Heaven is different.

The signers of the Declaration of Independence appealed to God and made ready for battle. Jesus Christ spent a good deal of time with the poor and the sick and the sinned against; but that was by the way. His mighty works are in his sayings, that have in them power to change the face of the earth, power to let the oppressed go free and break every yoke, power to bring in "the federation of the world, the parliament of man." I do not think that the people about Jesus heard much except the gospel for the day, or saw much except works that were for the present need. He had compassion on the multitude because they were faint, and he fed them. But that does not justify in an American city a free soup-house. What were called the mighty works of Jesus seem trivial as contrasted with his mighty sayings,— words let fall here and there. What is the raising of Lazarus to the planting of an energy which in due time will raise a world of men from existence to abundant life? Very gracious is the picture of Christ giving blind Bartimeus the light of the sun and the sight of the grass and the lilies and the faces of the children, and making an abandoned woman feel rich and good and at home in the thought of heaven, so that she did not care any more for poverty or pain or shame. A great work that is, but not the greatest. Work for the individual, remedial, palliative, comforting, was about all that could be done for the world in the first century. The foot of the strong was accurately measured to the neck of the ignorant and the

weak. The leaven of the words "call no man master" was working in the three measures of meal, the Church, the State, and society, but too slowly for those generations. Good men could do so little for the world that they said to one another, "Let it alone." If it will not let us alone, let us bear the grief.

> "It is not for us to be seeking our bliss
> And building our hopes in a region like this.
> We look for a city which hands have not piled,
> We long for a country by sin undefiled."

I do not wonder that the good men of the old times were hermits, waiting for death. The world was too heavy. "Let it alone. We cannot roll it over, nor make it clean: we can keep ourselves unspotted from it." There was a conviction in the earlier centuries that the earth was not to last long. The vile thing was to be burned. Good men lived on the earth as men live on the side of a volcano about to spit fire and rain ashes. Hymns are a record of what Christians have thought of the earth. The old hymns are mostly songs about heaven,— songs of emigration, pilgrim songs,— not like "Lochaber no more," sung with tears, but songs of deliverance from a hopeless, intolerable earth, plainly too far gone to mend. When a man died, he went like Lot out of Sodom. He looked not back. I cannot think of an old hymn that sings an earth made righteous, inhabited by men and women lovely and pleasant in their lives, and children playing in the streets.

The citizen of the twentieth century — a man afraid of no one, one of whom no one is afraid — was not even a dream in the first century.

Henry James says the Old World is a discipline, the New World is an opportunity. I asked a man, lately returned from the continent, what was the best thing he had seen since he left Denver; and he said, "The best thing was a man breaking land in Western Nebraska." The old resignation wails, Do not do any more. In the days not long gone we had to have a new kind of a hymn, and Mrs. Julia Ward Howe kindly made one for the situation,—

> "Mine eyes have seen the glory of the coming of the Lord."

We see no economy in burning up such a promising earth as this is. Truly, the light is sweet; and a pleasant thing it is for the eyes to behold the sun. There is something still the matter with the hearts and minds of the people, but burning up the hotel will not change

the character of the guests. In an old town in Wisconsin there is an uninhabited, useless, desolate, great barn of a house. It was known in my time as "Astor's Folly." God builds no such house. I cannot believe that this earth, contrived of God, will hang in space a cold cinder, and be known to the stars as they spin as "God's Folly."

The modern lover of men is of the type of David Livingstone. He was no better than the saint of the first century, but he had opportunity. He could do good work in a parish of Scotland, and he did. He was faithful in the work for a day. David Livingstone attended to the individual African; but he had in mind the redemption of African millions, the race, the redemption of one-quarter of the world. He blazed away, made a path, made a map, did for Africa what Marquette did for Wisconsin, Illinois, and Arkansas,— made a trail.

Clearly, we must attend to the day, the common round, the chores of life; but we must conserve time enough to think of all the days. Plainly, I see that the present social state is not what Jesus was looking forward to.

We cannot do any better than to study, and carefully study, the conduct of the life of Jesus,— how he did the common chores of life, and still looked beyond them and worked a larger thing. He was about his Father's business, and also about his brother's business. He was a good man in camp when the wet fishermen came, having toiled all night and caught nothing. He had a fire ready, and fish cooking, and bread. He did his part.

He had a fashion of doing a common thing in an uncommon way that dignified, he was made known in the breaking of bread. The gracious manner of it was remembered,— the gesture remembered when the face was forgotten. He had a great errand to do, but he did not avoid a small duty. He halted on any journey to help. The interruptions seem to have taken most of his time. There is no apparent haste in his conversation with the Samaritan. At that time he had no more important business. He talked and worked for the day, as we do. The mighty need of a sick world did not shut out the need of one sick man or sorry woman. But I can see that Jesus meant to leave some sayings that would work, so that, when he came again, he would see no bruised man on any road and no shunned woman in any house. He did not propose to come again and find the same old society grinding along, manufacturing the hungry, the sick, and in prison, and filling the road with people half dead.

To Jesus Christ the medicine chest and the ambulance were not

permanently to take the place of bread and meat and blankets and wisdom and love. He taught us to pray that our Father's will may be done on earth as in heaven. It is impossible to think that he taught us to pray for an impossible thing. Jesus had the vision more sure and clear of Isaiah, the prophet before him, and of Saint John, the prophet after him, of a country where men build houses and inhabit them, and plant vineyards and eat the fruit thereof,— a city builded according to the measure of a man's need. Over the gate of the city is written, "Neither shall there be any more pain." In the earth which his sayings are now transforming there will finally be no froth, no Ward McAllisters, "the Four Hundred," and no dregs, "the submerged tenth." It is almost a proverb that reformers are not good housekeepers. George Eliot says, Never cross the threshold of a reformer. The problem is how to be narrow and wide. The question will be best solved by an attempt to follow Jesus.

Someway, the Pilgrims — I mean the Pilgrims, and not the Puritans — managed the problem well. They landed from a pitiless sea on a pitiless shore; had in front of them winter and wilderness and wild Indians. The present day was very pressing, but they kept their grip on the future; as some one says, "wore homespun, but had their conversation in heaven." They made homes and schools, looked forward to the State, and went to "meeting,"— mixed up clearing poor land and planting corn and praying and hymn-singing and fighting in about the right proportion. They lived fearless, and died hopeful.

I think of Columbus. He must have attended strictly to the day's run of his ships, discipline of his men, of the food question, how everything headed. He was sailing-master. But all the time, in the deep undercurrent of his thought, he was seeing the new earth, the other half of the world which he believed in and was sailing to discover. It is possible to be busy with the common round of a day's business, to be also a good neighbor, to be also a good citizen, to be also hopeful, confident.

I taught a district school of the old-fashioned sort in Northern New York. I spent the Sundays with a Scotch family, Presbyterians, of course. Mr. Frazier permitted no reading of secular literature on the Sabbath. Boston's "Fourfold State," Baxter's "Saint's Rest," and "Pilgrim's Progress" were the proper thing. Mr. Frazier had for secular reading on six days of the week the New York *Tribune*, founded and edited by Horace Greeley. That winter in which I was

his guest on Sunday, his eyes gave out; and so he and I would take an obscure position back of the stove in the kitchen, and I would read to him from the *Tribune* the news of the world. One Sunday the minister came in at the back door, and there we were plainly convicted. He said, "Mr. Frazier, how do you explain this conduct, this reading of a secular paper on the Sabbath?" He said, "I was listening to the news of the world. I wanted to know how the prophecies of the Holy Bible were being fulfilled."

Robert Burns and Holy Willie lived in the same little village. They had two prayers,— Holy Willie's prayer, which you will remember, and Robert Burns's prayer. Holy Willie's prayer is going out, but Robert Burns's prayer is not going out. It is in the world, and it will remain there until it is fulfilled,—

"Then let us pray that come it may—
As come it will for a' that—
That sense and worth o'er a' the earth
May bear the gree, and a' that;
For a' that, and a' that,
It's comin' yet, for a' that,
That man to man, the world o'er,
Shall brothers be for a' that."

Ladies and gentlemen of the Conference, I thank you for the honor you have conferred upon me in permitting me to take so much of your time. And it is a great pleasure to stand again in this familiar place and speak to so many of my people who do not forget me and whom I will never forget. Kind have Indianapolis and Indiana been to me and mine.

III.

Public Outdoor Relief.

ARGUMENTS IN FAVOR OF PUBLIC OUTDOOR RELIEF.

[ISAAC P. WRIGHT, ST. PAUL, MINN.]

In response to the invitation of the Chairman of the Committee on "Indoor and Outdoor Relief" for my reasons for or against giving relief, I shall accept the affirmative side of the question, and endeavor to show that relief should be dispensed by public authorities only. Relief or aid, as we may be pleased to term it, cannot be dispensed with in any community in the civilized world, as we all know there are people wherever we go who are not self-supporting; and humanity dictates that those same people must be aided in one way or another, as their circumstances demand. As before stated, all relief afforded the poor should be public and dispensed under the authority of the people, through their representatives elected or appointed. The funds for relief should be gathered by assessment or taxation, thus making the burden equal among rich and poor. Private relief, as a general rule, does not come from the rich classes, but what is known as the middle class, who, as experience has shown (and economists will confirm my statement), give more to the poor than the rich, because they are nearer to the poor, and can consequently sympathize with them in their sufferings. Private relief should not be given. Whenever any one applies to a private citizen for aid, he should be sent to the one place where, after his case has been thoroughly investigated, proper action would be taken. Thus there can be no such thing as imposing upon charitably disposed persons, as is often the case. Public aid cannot be refused in cases of sickness, where all means of the family are exhausted and the children left to suffer the pangs of hunger. Neither can widows with many children be expected to be entirely self-supporting. Women with large families are deserted by their husbands: how can they get along without public aid? Again,

there are families wherein the father, and sometimes the mother, are of intemperate habits and will not work, or are sent to a place of detention, leaving their helpless children to suffer. In this city, as in all other cities, we have a vast number of fatherless or motherless children, or children with such parents as to make them worse than orphans, roaming about our streets, earning a partial subsistence, who by the aid of public charities secure a livelihood and are kept from committing petty crimes, which would certainly lead to the larger, ultimately sending them to the houses of correction, which in many cases produce more evil than good. Surely, these are cases for public relief. It is much easier to prevent crime than it is to suppress it. Therefore, the greater the necessity for giving outdoor relief, which in many instances not only prevents crime, but saves life. I do not believe in bestowing public relief with a lavish hand. On the contrary, it should be given only after a searching inquiry in all matters pertaining to the case, and then only temporarily. I have devoted many years of my life to this work; and, the more I do, the better am I satisfied that the plan followed by the Board of Control is the best ever devised by man to aid the worthy poor in our midst. Continued aid would only encourage pauperism. So the applicants are informed that the relief given is only temporary, and that every effort must be made by them to find employment, in which effort the Board always lends its influence. Great care should be used to avoid imposition. I believe in the municipality giving only partial support, so far as outdoor relief is concerned. Outdoor relief is justified, not only as the most economical, but likewise in the interest of public and private morals. In cases of old age and total destitution, where the condition of the family does not warrant outdoor relief, I believe that the almshouse and poor-farm system is the best and most economical for the purpose. In this city we do not allow or tolerate street begging. As soon as any one is caught at it, the case is immediately investigated; and, if it is found a deserving one, such aid as is required is given. If, on the contrary, it is found to be an undeserving case and a fraud, the perpetrator is sent to the workhouse. The Board of Control as organized has means at its disposal, and can act at once in all matters affecting the poor and needy. The means used by the Board are levied by taxation, and fall on all equally. Misfortune often overtakes people through no fault of their own, and they are compelled to seek public aid. A storm at sea, a conflagration, or the death-dealing cyclone may, in the twinkling of an eye, deprive one of

all earthly possessions, and leave him without any support. It is then that the hand of charity in the way of public relief is stretched forth and aid given. To dispense with public outdoor relief, properly administered, would be a calamity in any community. There can be no adequate remedy to take its place, and the poor would be obliged from sheer necessity to resort to crime. With the admirable system as carried out in St. Paul, there are none deserving who need go hungry. Neither do they want for medical attendance. If sickness is in the family, and the physician advises, the patient is sent to the municipal hospital, where the best of physicians and trained nurses administer to his wants. There may be a few cases where the good intended does not follow; but I think it would be a fair estimate to say that seventy-five per cent. are benefited and in time become self-supporting. Such being the case, how can the money so willingly appropriated be more wisely expended? Just as the man is lifted up, we lift up his family.

In every community there can always be found what might be termed a nomadic class, entirely destitute, and consequently requiring assistance to reach their homes or friends. This assistance should be rendered by the public officials, and only after careful investigation to ascertain if the circumstances warrant the giving of transportation. In almost all cases, it gets rid of undesirable persons, and at the same time puts them where they have some claim and are justly entitled to relief. To lessen the number of cases for public outdoor relief, I believe in all States maintaining institutions such as those in Minnesota; namely, asylums for the insane, the blind, the deaf and dumb, the feeble-minded, State schools for dependent children, reform school, State reformatory, and State penitentiary. With such a class of institutions, one can readily see how public outdoor relief can be systematized. The question of relief always has and always will be one of the greatest problems of an enlightened nation. With the brilliant progress that we already have made in aiding the worthy poor, new and difficult questions have arisen. I mention one by asking: Are you always certain you have helped the needy? Let us hope that the future meetings of the National Conference of Charities and Correction will be productive of results far greater than the excellent results obtained in the past, and thus make this nation the grandest, proudest, and most brilliant nation in the world in the matter of giving alms where alms are due.

[CHARLES H. BAKER, PORTLAND, ME.]

Supplying the needs of the poor by public charity must necessarily be done either by providing them with suitable homes where they shall have full support or rendering them partial support in homes of their own, however miserable these homes may be. To adopt the former method, as an invariable rule, would of necessity demand very much greater accommodations in the matter of almshouses than the most of our towns and cities in any of the States of this Union now possess. With an average of from three to four per cent. of the entire population of our larger towns and cities in a condition of legal pauperism, it is easy to see that large additions must be made to public institutions, whether they be State or municipal, to afford comfortable shelter for all who are really in need of public aid. The expenditure of vast sums of money for this purpose would be imperative, and that immediately, if the practice of outdoor relief which now obtains in most towns and cities were dispensed with and the poor were cared for entirely in public institutions; and this would be but a small item of the additional expense, when we take into consideration the fact that the cost of each person in an institution is two to three dollars and a half per week, when outdoor relief costs on an average only from ten to twenty dollars a year for a family of four persons. I know some would say that the comfort of these poor people would be greater if they were sheltered under a public roof; and, if all paupers were old and decrepit, this statement would be more true than now. But the lamentable fact is that all paupers are not of this class. They are composed of persons of all ages, from infancy to age; and, while some of the young are the children of vicious and intemperate parents, a great many of them are not. While some of the homes of the poor are abodes where vice of almost every kind abounds, a great many of them, though homes of poverty, are homes where the moral standard for virtue and purity is on a much higher plane than in some of the homes where wealth and luxury abound. It might be well to take the children of intemperate parents and keep them where they would be free from the pernicious example of their parents; but the proportion of such children who are nurtured altogether at the public expense that become worthy and honored citizens is surprisingly small when compared with those who are quite the opposite. But the children of poor widows, whose efforts for self-support are supplemented by occasional contributions

from the public treasury, in great numbers become the members of general society who are honored and respected for industry and virtue; and this comes largely from a home influence they could not have if they were inmates of a public institution. The feeling of kinship begotten in a home, however lowly, if it be a home of virtue, has an influence to lift us in the scale of being, which feeling and influence are not known, and cannot be known, in a normal sense, under the public roof.

We take the ground, then, that homes of vice, if the inmates of these homes are paupers, should be broken up. The father and mother should be put into such institutions as are provided at the expense of the State, county, or town, as the case might be, according to the laws of each of the several States relating to paupers. The children, if there be any, should be placed in reformatory institutions under the care of each several State, and there educated under such influences as are elevating in their nature, or, better still, provided with homes in good families, where better influences exist than in most public reformatory institutions. To those families who do the best they can under the circumstances that surround them, outdoor relief should be given to supplement their own scanty earnings and help them maintain a home of their own. The expense of supporting paupers will not be as large as if such relief were not given; and we also believe that pauperism would receive a more effective preventive under this plan than it would by the entire suspension ot such relief, and the consigning of every person seeking aid to the almshouse. The aim of all our efforts in the bestowal of public charity should be, especially where persons are under middle age, to render aid in that way by which they shall be best fitted for self-support, if their habits are such as to afford any ray of hope for an improvement in their conditions; and I must believe that, with frequent visitation and kindly admonition and advice, outdoor relief may be made a means for a more approximate attainment to such a result.

[MRS. M. J. LILLY, PORTLAND, ME.]

I realize the chance for fraud in the administration of out-of-door relief, its mixture with political intrigue; but, if there is good in the system, why not reform the abuses and let the good remain?

Perhaps my ideas have largely a local coloring. Our winters are

so long and severe, work for the unskilled so scarce, that I am sure great suffering would result from the discontinuance of outdoor aid. It is a simple impossibility for the infirm, the feeble-minded, and the inefficient to make during the favorable season any provision for the bitter winter. Private charity is totally inadequate to supply their needs.

There is nothing "interesting" about this class of people. To care for them privately would require something not yet well developed in human nature. Private charity is not yet "dependable" enough, to use a word which should not be allowed to become obsolete.

Yet these people are "set in families"; and, while in many instances the wiser course would be to break up the family (since we have no legislation to control certain things, and certain other things are beyond the control of legislation), yet in many others the touch of home spirit is the one solitary drop of comfort destiny has placed in the bitter cup they are compelled to drink, and it should be spared them. There are often cases where private charity will do a part, but would not do all. The city stipend helps and saves from the almshouse those to whom that would be fate's last and cruelest blow.

The demoralization of an almshouse life is such that it should be only a last resort for adults and never a place for children. We should have places of labor instead.

With us, I am sure, there would be more indiscriminate giving of alms if people did not feel that even the most wretched have some resource, something to save them from actual cold and hunger. I know a counter-argument would be that, if the wretched ones did not have this resource, they would avoid such desperate straits. I know that this is not true of many of our poor. They simply cannot help themselves, as they are and as their environments are.

We had a case brought to us two years ago. I visited the family personally, found a woman of simple mind, but amiable, and, though evidently to be a victim eventually of old-fashioned consumption, at present able to keep her little home neat and comfortable, but absolutely nothing more than this. The husband was ill,— complete nervous prostration, complicated with rheumatic troubles, rendering him nearly helpless and a great sufferer. He was a barber, and had worked as long as he could guide a razor; yet he seemed very poor, — poorer than seemed needful, as they had but one child to care for. I liked the people. Mrs. R. was all she knew how to be and a rack-

ing cough would permit. Mr. R. was more of a man than she was woman, and, as I came to know him, I liked his spirit. I sought the clew to his poverty, and found that he had been a drinking man,— not a drunkard, but drank to some excess up to five or six years ago, — that he had cared for aged relatives, and of late years his wife had spent a good deal in doctoring. Six years before he had "experienced religion," and, under the guidance of a "Gospel Mission" reform, had signed the pledge and bravely kept it. But his habits had ruined him, I suppose; and yet, if I have made his case clear, did he not deserve something better than the almshouse? Think what a brave struggle he must have made to conquer his life-long habits; and he had supported always his family and cared for her father and mother.

For a little while I easily obtained the help they needed. Then interest waned. It did not seem probable that he would ever regain health enough to be self-supporting, and the hospital branch of the almshouse was thought to be the proper place for him. This would consign wife and child to the almshouse proper or take the child from them. His past life was, of course, brought up against him. Some thought Mrs. R. ought to work out. I knew that the care of her house exhausted everything there was of her.

But it looked as though they must go. *Our well-to-do people all thought it best.* Meantime, prostrated and suffering, Mr. R. kept up so much courage, was so sure he would be able to work when the summer came, was so genuinely grateful for the help he received, so sure of the goodness of men so unexpectedly revealed to him, and so trustful in the goodness of God, nobody had quite the heart to tell him that hope and faith were in vain. A dressmaker, one of the Master's true followers, became responsible for the rent, the city officer reluctantly consented to aid them in the home, and the breaking up was deferred, at least, while they can keep comfortable.

[J. Q. ADAMS, COLUMBUS, WIS.]

I have had thirty-two years' experience as Superintendent of Poor, and scarcely a month goes by but I am called upon to examine into some case unlike, in many respects, anything I have ever before met. I have only a few of the most general rules as a guide as to when, where, and how much aid to give. I hesitate long before I break up a home, especially when there are little children and a mother. From

long years of observation, I have come to the conclusion that a very poor home, in the world's estimation, is better for a child in the end than an institutional life. It looks well and reads well to have State schools for dependent children, and to the casual observer it is very fine to see hundreds of little children gathered into these homes and schools, dressed in uniforms, etc. Is there any stamina developed here? any push? any quality that will be an inspiration to a child to hold on to in a hard place if one should come? How easy to think, and then say, The State cared for me once, and will again! and so the struggle is given over. Of course, all of this outside aid must be wisely given. Where you are trying to keep a family together, sit down with them and help them to live, in some cases get them a cow. Avoid giving a stipulated sum for a week or month,— this will soon come to be regarded as a pension; rather aid them from time to time as the necessity seems to demand, sometimes more, at other times less, educating them to self-reliance, and the feeling that you are their friend, and that you will supplement what they fall short of when they have done their best for themselves. I can point to more than a score of families that have been helped by outside aid and kept together (when the outside world said, Take them to the poorhouse), and the children have developed into respected and self-respecting citizens. For one, two, three, or more years, in some instances, it has cost more to maintain the family and the home than it would have to have taken all to the poorhouse; but is it not infinitely better for those children — citizens now — never to have been inmates of a poorhouse?

Then there are cases where families have seen better days and have the respect and sympathy of their neighbors, perhaps in a farming community, where people are ready to contribute flour, potatoes, fuel, etc., but some money is needed for groceries and clothing. Here a little outside aid is often very valuable. The family is kept in touch with old-time neighbors and friends, which seems to be an inspiration to effort. Just remove them to the poorhouse, how easily they settle down into a state of stolid indifference! and the poorhouse once their home, it is always their home thereafter.

ARGUMENTS AGAINST PUBLIC OUTDOOR RELIEF.

[J. NEVIN HILL, SUNBURY, PA.]

In general, I believe that persons who are inclined to accept the results of experience, whether logical or illogical, as against mere theory, join in favoring the discontinuance of a practice which increases reliance among the ignorant or the crafty poor and their children upon a heartless and mechanical system.

There seems to be a necessity for the continuance of a poor-law system for the sustenance of the impotent poor who are destitute, or would be so if neglected by the State. The relief of the friendless poor who are impotent in body or mind appeals only to the better side of humanity, and the tests are simple and need no artificial application. But carrying the same system beyond this, to the relief of the able-bodied, or to those capable of some labor, opens the door to chicanery and fraud, and to the growth of injurious theories among the officials, as well as to shrewd practices among the immoral poor, who thus succeed in pauperizing themselves, their neighbors, and their posterity.

Now, while in England and various States of the Union notice has been taken of relief in and relief out of almshouses or poor-law institutions, no relief to the able-bodied, as such, has been recognized or provided for, except *relief in work or labor*. The able-bodied poor person who is in need of relief is to be furnished the means of earning it. Obviously, in this age relief in labor can be given only in an institution, under practical overseers, whose duty it is to provide the work and to see that it is done. The first branch may be the more difficult, and is, perhaps, the great problem of relief. Outdoor relief in that direction is impracticable, and does not exist, as far as I know, except where the State undertakes public works expressly to furnish labor to regular workmen out of employment. Outdoor relief to the able-bodied, in money or in kind, is, however, extensively given, either in ignorance of the law or in disregard of it. In England it is prohibited or regulated according to circumstances by definite orders of the Local Government Board.

The difficulty of the whole question and the root of the evils growing out of practical administration seem to be traceable to the con-

fusion in the mind of the official between his own moral duties as a man and his public duties as a servant of the law.

There is no other branch of government in which the public officer is so liable to error, and this is abundantly shown by the prevalence of such maxims of administration as this: —

"It is cheaper (better economy) to contribute to the relief of a widow with small children in her own home than to run the risk of having the whole family become chargeable."

The injuriousness of such principles is incalculable. It may be enough to mention the mere fact that they hinder the true charity of the community and of the whole public, acting as individuals.

The attention of the civilized world has of late years been directed to the Whitechapel district in London. Some of the most persistent and strenuous — and perhaps lofty — efforts in the direction of private charity, by individuals and societies, are making there. I have not noticed that Mr. Vallance, clerk to the Guardians of the Whitechapel Union, has received credit in connection with this fact. Yet the chronic pauperism and criminality of the purlieus of Westminster went practically unchallenged in the face of unlimited outdoor relief. It is idle to speculate whether these endeavors in Whitechapel would be able to flourish against the competition of the Union; but it is a serious question whether they would have been established if that competition had not been withdrawn.

To my mind there is much significance in this. I do not wish to concede to the State the wholesome duty to visit the sick, to comfort the widow and the fatherless, and to raise up those who fall, at least until we are all agreed to impose upon it also the obligation to be a landlord to the tenant and a master to the servant.

[DR. H. C. TAYLOR, BROCTON, N.Y.]

That the present system is all wrong and ought to be abandoned is manifest to all that take the trouble to inquire. Evil comes of it, and always will as long as mankind are what they are. It is not possible that it be administered with any other effect. An angel would fail in every effort under it that he might make for improvement.

All the learning of the age, all the rhetoric of the age, and all the Christianity of the age will fail of any improvement of the question from the present standpoint. The very fact that evil, and only evil, comes of the present system, is evidence enough that it is wrong and

ought to be abandoned. Just what should be formulated to take its place I am not now able to say, but believe that, were the public conscience enlightened and made to feel the immense wrong that is being done, something would be evolved that would meet the exigencies of the case. Christians and Christian philanthropists, if they expect the world is to move morally, become better, and the millennium be introduced, must use means adequate to the end. This part of our system has become antiquated and useless. Pauperism is keeping pace with population and more; and it is not a little humiliating that the whole Christian world, in this matter of public outside relief, should adhere to it with such pertinacity, when the evil results are or ought to be patent to the minds of all.

If the relief of the poor in their homes, as heretofore, is to remain in the hands of public officials, who from the nature of the case feel little or no moral responsibility, then there will be no advance, and we shall go on begetting and educating paupers as in the past. But I believe that, if this matter can in some proper manner be laid at the doors of the people, so that the people will be made to feel the needs, the sufferings, and the woes of the poor, and the failure of the present system, it would be as a great light shining into their understandings. This effort to better our system and make telling encroachments in the domain of pauperism should never be made by proxy. The nearer we come to the woes of the world, the better work we shall do, the more kindly will be our feelings toward the dependent classes; selfishness will give place to a Christian charity; a generous principle will take root in our natures, that will not only relieve the poor, secure to them their self-respect, infuse a spirit of self-reliance, lift up the fallen, illuminate the moral atmosphere, but lift the souls of all participants toward heaven.

[ROBERT D. M'GONNIGLE, PITTSBURG, PA.]

I think it is justifiable where it is granted for a short time only, and as a temporary measure, not to exceed, say, a period of two or three months. The difficulty is that, when the recipient first applies, the application is made on the ground that they are temporarily in need, but they soon disabuse their minds of this, and their wants instead of being temporary are of a permanent character. In my experience, 90 per cent. of the persons who have had their names placed on the outdoor relief list endeavor to have the relief continued permanently,

and finally look upon it as something which they are entitled to and which rightly belongs to them.

My experience is that it usually does harm to the individual recipients. I mean harm in a broad sense; for it gives them ideas of dependence upon the poor officials for support, and anything that tends to destroy a person's determination to support and care for himself does harm. It does harm especially when the recipients allow children to act as their agents in obtaining and carrying the relief home.

The more I study outdoor relief, the more I am convinced that it should be placed in the hands of organized charitable societies. I am in sympathy with anything in the way of outdoor relief as handled by charitable societies. The only good that can come from outdoor relief is in what is granted through such channels. The examination of the poor-law officials becomes mechanical, and there is not the thorough investigation into cases there should be; and the result is that relief is granted finally without proper examination. Every time the applicant receives relief, the bolder and more impudent he becomes. He begins to think he has a right to it, that there is no disgrace attached to receiving it, and that any examination on the part of the poor law officials is impudence.

If the same amount of outdoor relief was granted through organized societies, it would do a greater amount of good. The recipient would not feel that the relief was granted by taxation, but by voluntary contributions. He would feel that he has no right to it, except because he has been unfortunate and needs temporary assistance; that the society has a right to investigate the case, and that he must be satisfied with the examination. Then, again, large numbers of the recipients of outdoor relief are of such a class that they need help other than the mere relief they receive, and should have lessons in industry, sobriety, and economy, have employment obtained for them, have the children sent to school, and be helped in hundreds of other ways that will make them useful and self-sustaining; and this work can be done only by a charitable organization.

[C. R. HENDERSON, DETROIT, MICH.]

This kind of relief is *unnecessary*. Private charity would supply all the necessities of such cases if the State simply and instantly withdrew from this field and ceased to levy taxes for this purpose.

Official charity is costly beyond properly administered private charity. It is easy to be liberal with funds raised from the public. It costs no appreciable sacrifice to be generous at the common expense.

The existence of a fund for outdoor relief is a constant menace of political corruption. This is especially true where the fund is administered by a single township trustee, without criticism from persons of opposite partisan motives. It is not so true where the fund is managed by a board made up of both parties. But the fund itself presents this temptation.

Public outdoor relief tends to *separate society into classes.* It aggravates a peril which is already great. It accentuates the difference of rich and poor. It makes the only bond between the prosperous and the broken that of the officials who dole relief from a treasury. When those who give to the poor visit them in their homes, there is a personal tie of humanity; but, when the State interferes to do this work, that tie snaps. Prejudices are increased, bitter feelings are fostered in the unfortunate and forgotten.

This system does actually tend to extinguish that very spirit of humanity which gave it birth. It is not safe for the well-to-do to forget the existence of their poor neighbors. Nothing hardens character more than the ease with which poverty is shut out of sight by the successful. So long as there is distress in the world, the rich need to know it by contact, and not by official reports alone.

Official outdoor relief tends to foster communistic doctrines and sentiments and impulses. Mrs. Fawcett says, "The poor-law system is practically socialistic," by which she seems to mean communistic. Our poor law in this respect is based on the dogma of communism, "To every man according to his needs." If we believe in communism, then this consideration is an argument in favor of the relief in question; but, if we believe communism threatens manliness, freedom, and progress, then this consideration is heavy against the system under criticism.

The tendency of outdoor relief is to lower wages. This it does in several ways. Money taken by taxation is so much taken from the productive capital of the country, and from the wages-fund. Subsidized labor, working by the side of unsubsidized labor, can and will take work at lower rates, and compel the entire class to accept the lower rates. The law punishes the thrifty to reward the thriftless. The history of the English poor law gives ample and painful illus-

trations of this assertion; but at the door of our own city poor offices we can observe the same fact at work. In a new country, where labor is still in great demand most of the time, the full evil effects cannot be seen. But the dangerous system is here, ready to do all its natural mischief in times of reverses and crowded population.

The system tends to excite hostility to the State itself. First, relief educates a large class to look to government for help; and, when this is received, the feeling of dependence increases. The *poor* man has become a *pauper*, a beggar. A willing pauper is near to being a thief. As the State excites hope which it can never fulfil, a time comes when the pauper is a public enemy. It is in this class that the worst foes of order are found, the only real *proletariat* we have. As the State cannot distribute its funds fairly, discontent is aroused in the neighborhood where aid is given. One poor man cannot see why he is not aided as much as his next-door neighbor, since he is quite as poor and has more children.

Having been educated by the State to be a beggar, he turns upon the State because it does not recognize his demand for support to be based in "natural rights."

None of these considerations weigh against personal and voluntary charity, which is a *favor* and not a *legal obligation*, and which may be suspended when the demand is made in the name of right.

On the other hand, private and church charities have their perils. In abolishing outdoor official relief and permitting freedom for private charity in this field, the State dares not relinquish the right to inspect and control all charities where there is danger of increasing the evils of pauperism.

[LEVI L. BARBOUR, DETROIT, MICH.]

Perhaps the first question which naturally and properly arises when we consider the subject of our outdoor relief — *i.e.*, aid furnished from the public treasury to persons not in any eleemosynary institution — is whether such aid is necessary.

Outdoor relief is never expected to be permanent or full support. Its object is to relieve temporary misfortune or partial disability. We boast that this is a land of plenty. No man, we are accustomed to say, or woman, or family, ordinarily sound in body and mind, need starve or lack the comforts of life, if industrious and frugal; or, in

general, lack, if forethoughtful, a sufficient surplus in the treasury to provide for old age and times of sickness and disaster. We recognize that such misfortunes may overtake the weak and unwise as to require occasional assistance, and that accident or permanent disability may be so sudden or great as to overwhelm the strongest, the wisest, and the best. But it is not the strong man suddenly laid low, or the wise man bereft of reason, or the good man come to grief who calls for this kind of assistance. The course of life which gives a man strength, wisdom, and goodness, or a reputation for it, surrounds him with strong, wise, and good neighbors, too generous and charitable to permit the disgrace of being compelled to demand temporary public relief to come upon him. They fly to his relief almost without time being given him to ask it. A careful examination of the list of resident applicants will expose none of such character, and, if away from home, a plain statement of his circumstances will bring abundant relief, a superabundance of relief; for in most of our large cities, except where outdoor relief is to be had for the asking, there is an excess of charitable persons and institutions ready and competent to meet and care for all such cases.

It is the weak, the lazy, and the impostor who demand outdoor relief; and for them we have provided the hospital, the workhouse, and the prison. It has been found unsafe, wasteful, and unwise to trust any of these classes with money to expend in their own behalf; or with the possession, without supervision, of support of any description which they do not earn, unless doled out to them as their daily or hourly needs may require. For permanent disability, even when partial, it has been ascertained, probably beyond all contradiction, that the aid received at an asylum or poorhouse is more kindly, more effectual, and more economical than any public aid that can otherwise be given. The great institutional abuses of ill-treatment and waste that formerly were so frequent have of late years, owing to the careful supervision of boards of correction and charities, been almost entirely eradicated. Such institutions can now supply the demands for relief in all cases of real suffering not cared for by voluntary charity.

Quite a number of our large cities provide no outdoor relief, and their statistics fail to reveal more suffering than exists in other cities which provide a large and yearly-increasing fund for that purpose. As the vultures flock to the carrion, drunken and shiftless paupers crowd the cities having the largest poor-fund. They are all entitled,

they think, to a share, and they want it; and, while it lasts, they can be persuaded to do nothing else but hover about the waiting prey.

But, it may be asked, though not necessary, may not outdoor relief be profitably resorted to?

Outdoor relief may be examined from several different standpoints: first, its effect upon the recipient; second, and of more importance, its effect upon the class to which the recipient belongs; and, third, its effect upon the public who pay and give it.

First. The progress of civilization has been said to be the growth of wants. These wants are personal, individual, and become necessities. To supply and satisfy them becomes the business and duty of each individual. He has no right to shift his duty upon others; and others have no moral right to assume his duty, if it can be shown that the performance of that duty is for his good. Every duty performed strengthens and enlarges the capacity of the individual for the performance of other duties, and every duty shirked or neglected diminishes such power. The chief duty of a human being who proposes to continue life is to gain his own livelihood,— supply the necessities of his own existence,— so that his being shall not be a burden upon others. Perhaps, in importance, the next duty of a man is to furnish aid to those who naturally are dependent upon him, either because he is the cause of their existence or they are the cause of his existence. The doctrine of altruism goes further, and makes it the further duty of every citizen to aid his neighbor in any way he can; at least that he shall do nothing, though great harm come to him thereby, which shall be to his neighbor's injury. By aid are meant, of course, advantage and benefits; and the converse is axiomatic, that injury to one's neighbor means a wrong to be avoided with as much or more care than injury to one's self.

Now, if the first duty of a good citizen is to provide for his own existence, anything that unfits him for the performance of that duty is to his injury and wrong. There is no greater incentive to labor than the necessity for it. How a man will row if he is to go over the falls if he doesn't! Throw him a line to tow him ashore, and how quick he quits! A swarm of bees, it is said, when removed to a tropical clime, learn that winter never comes, and soon cease to lay up a store of honey. So the pauper, learning that there is a fund for his support, basks in the sunshine of constant expectation, neither toiling nor spinning. As in muscular development there is no greater aid and strengthener than exercise and practice, so in the matter of gaining a

livelihood there is no better adjutant than the daily grind that necessity compels. Taking the crust, if only that comes, quickens the eye and sharpens all the faculties to gain something better for the morrow; and the appetite, whetted by the exercise, enjoys more keenly whatever better the morrow may present. Self-reliance is born only of energy and effort, strength of will and power come of development, and whosoever and whatsoever remove these working and invigorating factors of daily life from the man enervate him and injure him. To an individual who can live by his own effort, the effort is his great necessity and safety; and whoso deprives him of that necessity removes his vital stimulant, weakens and destroys him. But if he cannot live? Then devolve a duty and the exercise of a virtue upon his kindred and neighbors, and whoever and whatever deprive them of the opportunity to perform that duty and exercise that virtue wrong and injure them. We all admit that charity is a virtue, and its performance a duty; but it must also be admitted that there is no charity in that giving which harms the recipient and relieves others to whom belong the opportunity and duty of exercising it.

The relief of absolute want, that want which no personal effort can prevail against, if provided by a relative or friend, is inclined to create thankfulness in the recipient and enlarges the sympathetic nature of the giver. A kindly bond of friendship grows up between the parties: both are bettered. But are not all these good effects avoided, if the relief comes from a public source? Did ever a recipient feel thankful to the tax-payers, if he is fed at the public crib? Do the tax-payers feel generous and charitable when they pay poor-rates?

Second. To be "outdoor relief," it must be a recognized public system, known to all citizens. It is most especially and fully known to those who resort to it. A corps of officers administer it, yearly call for a certain sum, and report its use at stated periods. This call and these reports are advertisements for the applicants to come and demand their share of the fund. They feel that they are all entitled to a share, and they want it; and, while it lasts, they can be persuaded to do nothing else but wait and plead for it. They have a right to their share, and appearances must sustain their right. They must be poor, ragged, dirty, sick, and wretched,—have all the marks of poverty and distress about them. An improvised cough, a crying baby, and all the attainable habiliments of woe

almost necessarily become a part of the regular and established business of getting the daily and weekly allowance. A careful examination of the list will show that very few, who once succeed in getting on the list, willingly resign, unless some great good fortune overtakes them, or, sometimes, when they are threatened with permanent incarceration in the workhouse or poorhouse. Indeed, the influence of outdoor relief furnished to families but prepares them and reconciles them to poorhouse life.

It is universally recognized by all who have watched its effects that it demoralizes the neighborhood, tempting every one to apply for it who knows that his neighbor is thus assisted.

It demoralizes the officers who distribute it. They come to own the cattle they feed, and keep themselves in place by the votes of such dependants.

Third. It demoralizes the public at large; for, properly, they do not highly esteem a pauper fed at the public crib, and whom they see lounging about in public places. Gradually grows up a feeling of bitterness between poverty and wealth, which there is no such opportunity for softening as when personal acts of charity are called for and accepted as kindnesses. Many a man excuses himself to his conscience for not noticing and relieving misfortune and suffering because there are public officers appointed whose duty it is to seek out such cases and see to it that their wants are provided for; and, as he pays taxes for that specific purpose, why should he waste his time in investigation or harrow up his feelings with sympathy, or empty his pocket in relieving a distress which by law is fully provided for?

But to my mind there is another very strong reason why outdoor relief should not be provided. It is everywhere and by all admitted to be very desirable that the human race should be improved, and that this can in a great measure be accomplished by breeding from the higher (I do not mean wealthier) classes instead of from the lower. It is also generally known that those demanding outdoor relief are not members of the higher classes come to grief, but of the lowest. Regardless of all responsibility for it, they bring into the world a race of dependants, physically, morally, and mentally deficient. Now, if, when these deficient and delinquent members of the lower classes give evidence that self-support is impossible, they are retained in institutions properly regulated, while the individuals are cared for, the propagation of their kind is at least checked. Perhaps

this is the only way in which governmental aid can be rendered in bettering the blood. It is, at least, the ounce of prevention which will, in a measure, prevent the scattering broadcast of disease and the increase of the criminal population.

[E. O. HOLDEN, BARABOO, WIS.]

Charity administered officially deprives the act of those characteristics that should and do belong to the act. It takes out the element of personal sympathy, which, I believe, is the strongest human agent in the reformation of the individual, and should never be absent; for there is always a moral element in the causes of poverty that is left out of sight in the present socialistic method of poor relief. It leads an official to relieve the applicant with the idea of getting him out of the way at the least possible cost to his locality, and without thinking at all of doing anything toward prevention. There are a large class who are continually in motion. There is hardly a railroad train but has one or more of these cases at this time of the year.

The ideal state would be to have every man realize in a sense that he is his brother's keeper, and in some degree responsible for his character and success in life. If each poor, squalid, neglected family could be placed beside one that is cleanly, industrious, energetic, and moral,— better, if religious,— and there could be a feeling of responsibility in the one better circumstanced for the physical and moral well-being of the poorer one, the whole question would be settled as far as it can be in this lower world.

[MRS. JAMES M. CODMAN, BROOKLINE, MASS.]

My only excuse for venturing to offer anything additional on a subject that has been so fully discussed as the comparative merits of indoor and outdoor relief is that I have had special opportunities for observing, on a very small scale, the working of both systems. For thirteen years I have been an overseer of the poor in a small town in the immediate vicinity of Boston. Fifteen years ago this town was looked upon as a sort of paradise for poor people. It contained no almshouse, and it furnished in various ways plenty of work during the summer months for a large number of laborers. In addition to a considerable number of persons regularly relieved the year round, each winter brought a large proportion of these laborers to make ap-

plication to the town for help; and they always received it, in the form of rent, fuel, or groceries,—often all three. Naturally, poor men with large families moved to a town which presented such advantages, paid their necessary taxes, acquired a settlement and began to enjoy their share of these advantages.

At the same time there was in the town a flourishing Industrial Society, supported by the various churches, supplying work to a large number of women, sometimes as many as eighty or a hundred,—generally heads of families. With a population of 6,000, the appropriation for the support of the poor was $9,000. It was time to make some change, and at first an attempt was made to apply a labor test. It was decided that able-bodied men receiving help should work for it on the roads, at the rate of one dollar per day; and at the same time an arrangement was made between the Overseers of the Poor and the managers of the Industrial Society to supply the women with sewing. This involved much labor and trouble to the society, but did little to reduce the number of paupers; and the following year it was proposed that two of the women specially interested in the industrial work should be added to the Board of Overseers, already consisting of five persons. This met with much opposition, but was finally accomplished, at first, however, without any very marked results. Careful investigation reduced the numbers somewhat; but the total want of thrift, the readiness to accept any amount of relief, or rather the eagerness to demand it as a right, were undiminished, and 355 persons still remained on the list of paupers.

After a careful study of the subject in other towns, the only thing that could be recommended was the building of an almshouse. This was no new suggestion. Each successive Board of Overseers for the last ten years had urged it; but it had always met with strong opposition in town meeting, and it did so still. But, after repeated efforts and much perseverance, it was finally carried, and an appropriation of $12,000 made to buy land and build and equip an almshouse to accommodate thirty-five persons. This was considered absurdly small by all except the ardent supporters of the plan, and many were the prophecies that an addition would be needed within the year.

As soon as it was finished, notice was given that in future no rent would be paid for any one, no fuel allowed, no able-bodied man would be helped in any way, and that outdoor relief would hereafter be given only in very exceptional cases.

Now for the results: within a year the number of persons relieved

fell to fifty-three, no able-bodied man has ever even applied for help, the number at the almshouse has never exceeded seven, and this number was at the time when the experiment was tried of caring for some of the harmless insane there,— an experiment speedily abandoned. While the population of the town has doubled, the amount expended for the relief of the poor is now $6,000, of which $2,500 goes to pay the board of our largely increased number of insane in the State institutions, leaving $3,500 the amount actually expended for the poor,— $1,500 for the almshouse, and the balance for outdoor relief in our own town, and largely for temporary relief of our poor in other towns and cities. With all this there has been no suffering. The Industrial Society has passed out of existence, and has been followed, after a long interval, by a Friendly Society, which gives no money, but furnishes amusement and instruction of various kinds. There has been no increased demand upon private charity, and we have no beggars. What has become of that little army of paupers? It has gradually melted away, and its disappearance has been marked by many amusing incidents. Old men and women whose children had been perfectly willing that they should have outdoor relief suddenly found devoted sons anxious to support them rather than have them go to the house; men and women who had declared themselves too weak to work recovered strength with marvellous rapidity; and the laborer, all whose earnings had barely been enough to support him through the summer, now saved for the winter, and saved enough to keep him in tolerable comfort. At present there are in our almshouse four persons, all feeble and defective, and it may be objected that an annual expense of $1,500 for these four paupers is excessive; but, viewed in connection with all the circumstances of the case, it is money well spent. Of course, cases of sudden illness or accident will occur which must be cared for at home; but regular outdoor relief is now given only to two classes of women, whom it seems legitimate as well as humane to help in their own homes: first, the old woman, respectable and honest, whose children or friends are glad to do something for her support, and who needs only a trifling amount of groceries to make her comfortable and independent, in the enjoyment of the little room and the precious furniture, instead of wretched and unhappy as an inmate of the house; and, secondly, the widow with little children, suddenly deprived of her husband and her support, and unwillingly forced to ask for the public aid she has never needed before. If she is sent to the almshouse, she cannot keep her chil-

dren with her, and yet she is perfectly well able to care for them. The little work she can do, with perhaps a trifle earned by the older children, pays the rent and provides fuel, the town gives her groceries, and the family is kept together. The struggle may be hard, but already in several cases such familes have become self-supporting, and have voluntarily given up the relief, the children as eager as the mother to get along without it. This is not making hereditary paupers, but it is making active, independent citizens of those to whom the almshouse would have been a lasting hardship and disgrace. There are in our town about half a dozen of each of these classes; and the aid furnished is in all cases considerably less than full support at the almshouse, and its distribution is carefully watched.

Besides the very marked and obvious saving in *money*, the moral effect of the change has been very great; and I have no hesitation in saying that the whole tone of the population has been raised, and that "to come upon the town," at one time regarded as the natural and proper thing to be done, is now looked upon as a disgrace. As a proof of this, it has several times happened that, when through illness or temporary disability relief has been given to a family, on the coming of better times the amount of that relief has been voluntarily paid back into the town treasury, in order to escape the stigma of the name of pauper. Self-respect and independence have been encouraged, and the race of paupers within our limits has very nearly disappeared. All this has not come about without a considerable expenditure of time and labor and incessant watchfulness, and in spite of all these there have been many discouragements. I suppose there is no doubt that to the busy overseer, with little time to spare for small details, and looking merely to the present despatch of business, the old system is the easiest and the simplest; but, viewed in its connection with the future and with the great question of pauperism, it seems to me, and to those who have been watching our experiment, that it has proved itself a successful one. Such as it is, I offer it for your consideration.

CHARITY: HOW IS ITS WORK BEST DONE?

BY RT. REV. FRANCIS S. CHATARD, BISHOP OF VINCENNES.

We are told that the social order of the world is profoundly disturbed; that there is a restless, uneasy surging of the masses, which means trouble. We are also told that this comes from a want of charity, of consideration for the rights and feelings of our neighbor. I am afraid there is a great deal of truth in this. But I am checked at once by the objection that I am out of order; for outdoor charity is the theme of the evening, and this means the dispensing of material aid. Well, I think if the indoor charity be all it should be, the outdoor charity will be all the better regulated and its beneficial effects be more wide-spread. It is undoubtedly true that the charity of Christianity civilized the world. In a meeting of prominent revolutionists who brought about the new kingdom of Italy, at a banquet on the Via Condotti in Rome shortly after 1870, Terenzio Mamiani spoke of the two civilizations,— the Pagan and the Christian. He looked forward to a better one: the third epoch, he said, had dawned. Still, he gave great credit to the second civilization, to which he and all present owed their enlightenment and culture. This second civilization sprang from the truth that men have rights; that they are equal in this, that their sacred and inalienable rights are to be respected; that the image of the Creator in each man makes him an object of consideration, gives him an inherent dignity that calls for recognition, and for treatment corresponding to it, even if that man be clothed in the garb of poverty. A recent poet, Edwin Arnold, has recognized in beautiful language this spirit of Christianity. He says of the Author of Christianity: —

> . . . "This Babe, born lowlily,
> Should — past dispute, since now achieved is this —
> Bring Earth great gifts of blessing and of bliss;
> Date, from that crib, the Dynasty of Love;
> Strip his misused thunderbolts from Jove;
> Bend to their knee Rome's Cæsars, break the chain
> From the slave's neck; set sick hearts free again,
> Bitterly bound by priests and scribes and scrolls;
> And heal, with balm of pardon, sinking souls;
> Should Mercy to her vacant throne restore,
> Teach right to kings, and patience to the poor;

Should by his sweet name all names overthrow,
And by his lovely words the quick seeds sow
Of golden equities, and brotherhood,
Of Pity, Peace, and gentle praise of Good."

The spirit of Christ is the spirit of charity. God, says the apostle, is charity, is love; and the charity which is in man is the love of God shared by man, whereby he loves, first, God, and, secondly, his neighbor for God's sake. This love of one's neighbor urges him, compels him, to do good to his fellow-man in need. He that hath the substance of this world, and shall see his brother in need, and shall refuse to have compassion on him, "how," asks the apostle Saint John, "doth the charity of God abide in him?" The spirit of Christ, as shown here, is the spirit of the Good Samaritan. And it is this spirit, and this spirit only, which will restore the disturbed relations of men; and these it will restore effectually. It must be the spirit of the rich especially. It is they who are to provide the means and control the disbursing of them. Both the one and the other call for fortitude and prudence,—fortitude to undertake great things for the people and to make sacrifices for the poor, and prudence that these sacrifices be not thrown away, but dispensed with discernment to those who really are in need.

This brings us to the practical question of relief. Here we find ourselves face to face with the two systems,—the system of State relief and that of organized work by individuals. While much may be said in favor of the State taking care of the poor, any one who has had a little experience of its work, I am inclined to think, will not be enthusiastic over it. The only really perfect way of caring for the poor is where, to prudence in dispensing through organized effort, is added the presiding influence of religion; for the needs of the soul are more important than those of the body. What is noble in man is his soul: the body is to perish. The aid to the body is to be made subservient to the help given to the soul. Raise a man up morally, while you strengthen him physically. And you need not proselytize. A man's faith is his own business. No one can believe except he want to. But you can advise him to live up to the tenets of his belief, and aid him to know what Christianity is, if he show a disposition to seek the knowledge. As the man who destroys another's faith in Christianity is the most of all wanting in charity, so he who helps a man to be a Christian shows himself to be truly charitable. This is the secret of the success of the organized societies of the Catholic

Church, the great religious societies of men and women, like the orders founded by Saint John of God, and by Saint Camillus of Lellis to attend the Hospitals, the Sisters of Charity, the Little Sisters of the Poor, the Sisters of the Good Shepherd, and the many others, of which the latest is the order just begun at Biskra, by Cardinal Lavigerie, to extinguish slavery in Africa. Among the lay associations, numerous in every time, in this day stands prominent the Society of Saint Vincent de Paul, which has make the name of its founder, Ozanam, famous throughout the world. The system they follow is one in which outdoor relief is especially looked to, and every kind of distress it is their aim and object to meet. And the reason why their work is so thorough and so permanent and so persevering is because it is material aid bestowed by charity enlightened by religion.

IV.

Hospitals.

HOSPITAL CLEANLINESS.

BY HAL C. WYMAN, M.D.,

PROFESSOR OF SURGERY, MICHIGAN COLLEGE OF MEDICINE AND SURGERY.

Aside from the moral and religious influence of good, wholesome cleanliness, hospital cleanliness implies a freedom from filth and the germ causes of disease. The term "hospitalism" was introduced by the eminent Edinburgh physician, Sir James Y. Simpson, to indicate that condition of a hospital which added to the disease and mortality of its inmates, and implied, further, the very opposite of hospital cleanliness. A hospital is kept clean, not to make its inmates better, but to make them live. Since the discussions prompted by the use of the word "hospitalism" became general, it has been learned that the mortality of hospitals can be reduced by cleanliness. For a long time it was supposed that the defects which caused the mortality were inherent to the walls and permanent structures of the hospital, and could be relieved by tearing down the old buildings and making new ones every ten or fifteen years. Ten years' use was supposed to be enough to saturate any hospital with poison. One of the leading writers on the subject described the awful results of overcrowding and lack of classification which obtained in the old Hôtel Dieu in Paris during the last century, showing that in the *puerperal* cases fully fifty per cent. died. This was all attributed to the poisoned condition of the walls, caused by their constant exposure to contagious diseases.

But more recently it has been determined that the term "hospitalism" needs to be modified in its meaning, so as to include the fact that the diseases which cause hospital mortalities are propagated by germs which easily find a habitation, not only in the walls, floors, and crevices, but in the baths, clothing, bedding, and the bodies of the patients themselves. Medical men have come to understand that no

matter how vast the air-space per patient, how ample the ventilation, how thorough the drainage, how perfect the construction, the hospital may be in an unclean condition, which will add to the mortality and cause the death of people who would have lived if they had remained at home. This may be due to faulty administration; but, no matter what its cause, it is desirable to have the term "hospital cleanliness" include in its meaning the removal of germs and the conditions which make their germination probable.

Clearly, then, we must study the patient as well as the hospital in which he is sick. A classification of diseases as they appear in the receiving-room is of first importance. Paralysis, rheumatism, neuralgia, heart disease, and many other diseases I might mention, do not endanger patients suffering from wounds or disease of the mucous membrane, even when they occupy the same room, with proper air-space and ventilation. But suppurating wounds and diseases of the air passages generally do develop a germinating poison which may infect other people suffering from healthy wounds. Erysipelas, gangrene, septic fevers, pneumonia, typhoid fevers, are all frequent among the causes of death in hospitals; and they are capable of transmission from one patient to another.

An incredibly large number of micro-organisms have been discovered, each of which is capable of causing the development of pus in the plastic material with which Nature heals wounds. If they get into wounds, or any one of them, for that matter, gets into a wound, fever, delayed recovery, and perhaps death may be the result. No amount of mixture with pure air and good ventilation can dilute or attenuate these poisons. One germ, single and alone, floating in the atmosphere, is not so apt to hit and infect a man as a dozen are; but it can do just as much damage, if it does strike, as the dozen can. The infectious diseases and wounds must be carefully separated, as the first and most important step toward hospital cleanliness.

In this connection, we must not forget the qualities which the germs possess of retaining, when dry, their germinating powers an indefinitely long time. They require only the warmth and moisture of the human body to set them into action, when they perform their deadly work. In the dry state, they easily float in the air, and are knocked about from bed to bed and patient to patient, until they find the requisite degree of heat and moisture for their development.

But, if wounds which are most likely to suppurate or are suppurating are classified by themselves when they first appear in the hos-

pital, and if the erysipelas, the gangrene, the typhoid, etc., are classed by themselves, the cleanliness of the hospital will be greatly enhanced and the dangers to life greatly mitigated. It is generally acknowledged that proper classification, based upon the filth-developing qualities of particular wounds and diseases, has done more to diminish the rate of hospital mortality than all the attentions which have been given to the constructive features of these institutions. A hospital should be as nearly clean, in the absolute sense, as possible. It should be as free from germs as practicable, and likewise as free from the conditions which favor the fructification of germs.

The hospital and likewise the patient must be as free from dampness and moisture as possible. Water, however, with plenty of pure air, is the most valuable instrument for maintaining hospital cleanliness. It can be used to wash away the germs which would otherwise infect the institution. We can easily see that cleanliness must apply to the patient as well as the institution in which he is to be treated, and that his attendants, nurses, and physicians must be germ-free practically. The patient and his hospital environments must be considered as separate items. If the patient is not himself clean, he speedily vitiates his clothing, bedding, and every article of hospital use with which he comes in contact. He must be clean before he enters the ward or room where his progress to recovery is passed. The means of cleaning a patient before admission to a hospital are commonly carried out in a very perfunctory manner. The instruments for the purpose are generally inadequate and improperly located and constructed. There are various methods of doing the work. One is by means of soap and water with basin and towels. Another method is to put the patient through a formal bath in some sort of an immersion apparatus. A third and less commonly used method has no basin or tub. It strips the patient of all clothing in a warm room, the floor of which is covered with cement and is lowest in the centre, so that all fluids falling on it speedily drain away. Then, by means of a small hose, the nurse causes a stream of warm water to run over the body of the patient until, with soap and rubbing, it is perfectly clean. Sometimes this method of bathing a patient is used in the form of a shower apparatus. A slight table is used with it, the top of which is made of slats. On this the patient is laid when he is too weak to stand; and the débris of the bathing process runs out of the bath-room as fast as it is washed from the body. It is this débris, the organic material, which is richest in the

micro-organisms which cause the septic fevers, the blood-poisoning, of the hospitals. Chemicals known as antiseptics, if used in quantities sufficient to destroy the micro-organisms which cling to the body of the patient until removed by soap and water, are dangerous to human life, and can never be used, except in very minute quantities, secondary to the bath. The matter has been thoroughly tried; and the verdict is that the antiseptics, like carbolic acid, corrosive sublimate, etc., have a very limited range of usefulness in contact with the human body.

The bathing facilities of a hospital we must regard as the most important of its cleaning features. They strike at the root of infection, and are the features of hospital life with which the patient must first come in contact.

Let us visit a few hospitals and see. In many of them the bath-rooms will be found in an out-of-the-way place, inaccessible, to be used when the patients and nurses have plenty of time and convenience. In such institutions, cleanliness is impossible. In other institutions, we may find the room conveniently located, but the tub easily gets out of order. The waste-pipes become clogged with filth,—if not completely clogged, at least partially so; and the warm, steamy water ferments the filth, and makes such a bath-tub really worse than nothing for the purpose of cleanliness. Better to have the dirt dried on a patient than to have it moistened and steamed, without being thoroughly washed off and carried away out of sight and reach. All of our hospitals, almost without exception, have bath-rooms and bath-tubs some of which are almost constantly out of order, and, when not out of order, are the vehicles of filth from one patient to another. All patients entering a hospital should be bathed and given fresh, clean clothes before admission to the ward. This imposes a task which nurses and attendants will always be inclined to slight; and, if the appliances are not of the simplest and most efficient kind, any defect in the work will be attributed to some fault in the apparatus, tub or faucets.

My experience leads me to have little faith in the wholesomeness and cleanliness of the bathing facilities usually provided in hospitals for the purposes under discussion. They are usually a tub of zinc or porcelain, with two entrance valves, a waste-pipe, and an overflow. They are provided with soap and towels. Hot and cold waters are turned into the tub until the right temperature and quantity are attained. Then the patient, if not well enough to help himself, and

not too feeble to endure the bath, is lifted into the tub, and the nurse proceeds with the necessary soap and rubbing. Then the patient is lifted out, dried with the towels, clothed, placed on a stretcher, covered with a blanket, and carried to his bed in the ward. In the mean time the waste-pipe has been opened from the bath-tub, the water has slowly filtered away, and, as it recedes, deposits upon the walls of the tub particles of the solid matter which it held in suspension. Now, when the next patient comes, the bath-tub is cleaned, if the attendants have not been hurried; and, if so, an attempt at cleaning must be made before the bath proceeds. And here is a point where it is very easy to grow careless, and the tubs easily become foul: they thus become a great source of danger. I do not think any bath-tub in any hospital is safe unless constantly under the eye of the chief medical officer, and even then there are sources of danger which cannot be reduced to the minimum so long as the existing bath tubs are in use. I would have a bathing place, a small room, the floor covered with cement, so much lower in the centre that water falling on it would quickly run off through a drain. In this room I would have a small table, just wide enough and long enough for the patient to lie upon. Its top would be of coarse slats, about three feet above the table a horizontal bar of iron perforated to permit the escape of water. I would have this simple bath in the receiving-room of every hospital. On that table the sick or wounded patient could be laid; and over his body a stream of pure water of proper temperature could be made to flow and come in contact with every part of his body, wounds and all, if need be, which will thus be thoroughly washed, and the débris be swept into the drain, and away out of danger. With the minimum of effort, this device gives the maximum of cleanliness.

Hospitals which receive many accident cases are exposed to great danger from infection through the admission of filthy patients. There is no better way to avoid the danger than to impose on all patients this simple bathing requirement and a change of clothing. No article of the patient's wear should be admitted to the ward. I would have the clothing of all patients who are confined to bed consist of a simple night-dress of cotton cloth, open in the front and fastened with buttons. This should be washed as often as soiled, at least every other day, and should be thoroughly ironed before laying away for use. The value of the ironing process as a means of cleaning and purifying all articles of bed and body linen cannot be too

highly extolled. It is a custom of marked antiquity, and is the most thorough and efficient sterilizer, when properly applied, known to modern science. The hot irons come in contact with almost every part of the fabric on which they are used, and destroy by heat any germ and dispel any moisture which might stimulate the growth of germs, should they reach the cloth. I have often noticed the comfort of a party of women patients in a hospital for the insane who were engaged with the ironing and other laundry work. They are greatly benefited by such work, and perform it with pleasure. I have often wondered if the labor-saving machines of the steam laundry attached to many hospitals were really the best for the purpose. I do not think any machine can more carefully smooth out and make ready for the hot smoothing iron the article to be treated than the patient whose only opportunity for occupation, the exercise of mind and muscle, is pushing for a few hours once in a while a hot flat-iron. I have regretted to see the hand method of doing the laundry cleaning in our hospitals for the insane disappear, because I have thought with it has gone one of the most useful, self-satisfying occupations for insane women. I have indeed seen both men and women industriously and happily engaged in the laundry work of an asylum. While this task is regarded as one of the most menial connected with hospital administration, it is one of the most important for purposes of cleanliness and invaluable for the purpose of providing light and useful occupations for the convalescents. Large, general hospitals might keep a considerable force of convalescents constantly at work doing the ironing in the laundry; and thus, by making the ironing work a greater feature of hospital life, the bed and body linen would be more frequently and thoroughly ironed and greater cleanliness be maintained.

I have visited a private infirmary for the diseases of women where the most successful surgical work has been achieved, and because of the thorough cleanliness maintained in the institution. The patients there, notwithstanding they paid a large rate per week for board, were employed in light laundry work during the period of convalescence. This was done for the purpose of imposing some slight task for hand and brain while waiting for the return of strength, and the institution got the benefit of that labor in a greatly reduced mortality in a line of surgical work which is the most delicate and dangerous.

The clothing worn by the patient when received is a fruitful source of infection, and must be deprived of its germs by treatment in a

proper place convenient to the receiving-room of the hospital, so that he can have it in a wholesome condition when his convalescence begins. A small room should be provided with steam-pipes and tight walls, and a rack on which to lay the clothing. Then the steam should be turned into the pipes until the temperature in the room is raised to a height which will sterilize any germs which the clothing may contain. I know that some germs under some conditions are capable of resisting very high temperatures ; but for all practical purposes the boiling point is high enough to destroy them. If all white goods are boiled, they will practically be sterile ; and an ordinary boiler can be used for that purpose. Other materials will not tolerate the application of water, and they may be sterilized in an ordinary oven. Simple boxes can be arranged so that clothing can be deprived of its germs by exposing it to an atmosphere of *chlorine* or sulphurous acid gas. Sometimes the funds available for the purpose are not ample for the construction of proper steam sterilizing ovens. Then the chemical antiseptics may be used ; but there is always danger of destroying the goods.

The beds in a ward should be arranged in such a relation to the walls that there is ample room for nurses and attendants to pass around each one. This will prevent the accumulation of germs between the bed and the wall. The bedstead should be high enough to permit free circulation of air under it and to enable the attendants to reach every part of the floor beneath it. It should be of iron or wood of smooth surfaces, giving the fewest inequalities and crevices in which germs and parasites can lodge and multiply. The springs should be of the best woven wire, with the simplest fastenings to the bedstead. All crevices should be properly filled with paint before a bed goes into use ; and, while in use, the joints, crevices, and fastenings between the springs and bars must be painted with an antiseptic chemical, composed of equal parts of turpentine and carbolic acid, once every week. Each bed should have its name or number, and all the bedding for that bed should be controlled by the same mark. In this way, a strict account can be kept with each bed, so that the administration can know just what the condition of patients is from time to time in relation to that particular bed. It may be that wounds treated in such and such a bed will assume a certain unfavorable condition, and the unfavorable condition will cease to appear when the bed is thrown out of commission and a fresh one substituted. The wounded in a hospital are menaced by so many sources

of infection that minutest details of cleanliness must be constantly observed. The bed-linen should be changed frequently, and the mattresses and pillows ought to be fresh and new for each case suffering from an open wound. The most skilful antiseptic dressings of the surgeon are liable to get displaced and expose the wound to the dangers of infection by the swarms of disease-inducing micro-organisms which live in the feathers and hair of pillows and mattresses which have done frequent service in a hospital. The expense which would attend makes it out of the question to provide new feathers and hair for each bed every time a new patient is received; but cheaper materials for mattresses and pillows can be used, so that the desirable changes can be made. I have seen efforts made to sterilize pillows and hair by means of exposure to high temperatures; but they are such non-conductors of heat that the deeper parts of the material remained unaffected by the process. A fine grade of excelsior, the wood-fibres made by machinery, and the moss which grows in the Southern States can be obtained in quantities cheap enough to admit of their being used for pillows and mattresses, which can be made new for every case of open wound.

The floors, walls, and crevices of the wood-work require the most constant cleaning to keep them germ-pure. They need to be treated to antiseptics after thorough washing and drying. Floors should be rubbed daily with flannel rubbers which have been treated to a mixture of carbolic acid, turpentine, and wax. It fills the crevices and makes the floor perfectly smooth, so that germs are easily swept up, when they can be destroyed by fire. The dust and soiled bedding shoots which modern architecture has put into hospitals are bad features of hospital construction from the standpoint of cleanliness. Better to have a fireplace in each room for a crematory in which to burn the sweepings before they are removed from the ward. These shoots and dust-flues are always getting currents of air through them. On unexpected occasions they are opened by inspectors and visitors, and clouds of filth are blown into wounds, undoing all the good which has been accomplished by the most painstaking care of the patient, his bed, and his ward. The shoot for soiled linen is a veritable charnel-house. It cannot be cleaned, and it is a flue for air, as well as the *débris* of disease, which reaches from the upper wards to the basement. Every article which goes through it acts as a piston to drive the infected air out of it, and every door furnishes crevices for escape.

It is much better to let these labor-saving inventions of the architect entirely alone, and cremate all dust as it is gathered from the walls and floors; and, when moving soiled bedding, it should be treated like the dressings from the wound,— that is, thrown into large tin basins containing antiseptic solutions. These can be carried to the laundry with little danger of scattering the germs which they contain all over the hospital. Two facts which have been revealed to us by the students of the relations of micro-organisms to disease ought to be constantly in the mind of the hospital administration which aspires to cleanliness. One is that germs in their dry state do not multiply, but travel. They are in that state most easily disseminated through an institution. The other is that moisture and heat are essential to their growth and multiplication. These conditions they always find in the wounds and diseases of the patients. Damp walls, floors, and bedding easily become culture mediums for the rapid multiplication of infectious germs, which, when time has dried them, easily travel to the patient. But, if advantage is taken of their lack of locomotion to sweep them up and cremate them, or to wash them away with the floods of a properly constructed bath, there will be diminished mortality, and marked improvement in the wounds and health of every patient in the hospital.

It is, however, to be remembered that it is of greater value in keeping down the hospital mortality to give first and strictest attention to the personal cleanliness of the patients.

Nurses must be trained to understand that the most dangerous cesspools and sewers are nearest to the wound, and that the patient must be shielded from the micro-organisms which have found in his own bodily heat and moisture the essentials of their growth and multiplication.

V.

The Care of the Insane.

THE CARE AND TREATMENT OF THE INSANE.

BY W. B. FLETCHER, M.D., CHAIRMAN.

As chairman of the Committee on the Care and Treatment of the Insane, I have to report in brief that I have corresponded with the various members of the committee, and have failed to inspire any response, except from Hon. W. B. Letchworth, who gave me his valuable report upon "The Insane in Foreign Countries," with permission to extract from it whatever I desired; and from Dr. Albert R. Moulton, of Boston, Mass., whose suggestions I report in full. Dr. Dewey, of Kankakee, Ill., will present his own views in a separate paper, which was not received in time for the report.

It is to be regretted that there is a general impression among superintendents of hospitals for insane that the National Conference of Charities and Correction is in some way antagonistic to their interest in caring for and treating the insane: whereas, in fact, the greatest good will accrue to both the superintendents and their patients from the works of this Conference. It is a mistaken notion that better laws and more popular education regarding the care and treatment of the insane will deprive superintendents of their power of doing good; and, if it robs them of some power to do evil, good will come of it.

The question of the detention and care of the insane is one of paramount importance in all civil governments: it frequently involves in the highest degree the civil rights of mankind, and demands the most acute psychical knowledge. The highest legal acumen, the most profound medical skill, must here decide what may be for the greatest good or the utmost harm to the human being.

Who shall be detained or committed as insane? What degree of insanity demands attention? How shall they be committed? Where shall they be detained? How long shall the detention continue? How shall the agents be appointed who are to care for the unfortunates who are to be detained?

These questions are almost entirely for medico-legal consideration. I will treat of some of them in a general and suggestive way rather than exhaustively.

It has been said that sanity and insanity shade into one another as gradually as day into night, and I might add, in some cases, with almost as frequent and systematic periodicity.

There are many persons whose insanity develops in such manner that the propriety of placing them in hospitals to guard against injury to themselves or others is beyond question. The man or woman who, without the forerunner of fever, becomes wild, maniacal, and raving, whose will is gone, and no argument induces the return of the lost power of self-control, is insane beyond question. It requires neither judge, jury, nor commission to determine the fact that immediate detention and control by others is best for the individual.

There are, however, even more dangerous forms of insanity, that develop slowly and with perfect consciousness of the victim, who, desiring to hide the mental deformity, becomes the most expert dissembler, manifesting a cunning in acting that deceives all but the expert alienist. The limit of human knowledge is reached when mind tries to comprehend mind. No more difficult medico-legal problem is ever presented than that of determining how to deal justly with our fellow-man with mind diseased.

The authority to commit to a hospital a person alleged to be insane is, in the United States, vested in a commission composed of a judge, justice of the peace, or some officer of the court, and one or two physicians,— one the medical attendant, one as medical examiner. It is thus in thirty-three States and Territories. In five no medical evidence is required; in seven the commitment is made by jury trial, when one member must be a medical man; and in two by jury alone. In a few States it is forbidden that any medical officer of a hospital for insane shall testify, thus in some cases depriving the court of the only testimony of real value.

When both judge and attorney are learned only in the written law, and totally ignorant of psychiatry, and the jury ignorant of both, what chance is there for that class of cases not marked by the most startling phases of mental disease? Or, if medical testimony is evoked in the case, it is usually an expert for revenue only, whose local reputation is made up by his being either an old doctor, a good surgeon, a first-class eye and ear or nose and throat specialist, yet who never spent a day in investigation of the science of psychiatry, and has

about as vague ideas of brain pathology and alienation as he has of astronomy.

The jury system can have but one claim of justice in it, and that is that the alleged insane person is not committed without a chance of defence; and this apparent justice is at times unjust. It gives undue notoriety, and does positive injury by exciting graver forms of the disease, while it falls short of justice in many instances by setting free persons dangerously insane, whose very insanity is marked by deception and cunning.

In most of our hospitals for insane the action of the committing powers is submitted to the superintendent as a final judge, and he may accept or reject, as his knowledge, ignorance, or his fancy may suggest, after he has read the certificate. But how absurd to expect a physician miles away to decide from a written statement of ignorant or unskilled persons as to the character of the most complex and intricate of diseases!

What physician or surgeon of repute would commit himself to an opinion except from personal inspection of the patient or information from some expert? How is the superintendent, who, as a rule, is but endowed with human knowledge, to know that this alleged insane person has not some taint of blood from temporary derangement of stomach, kidney, liver, etc., requiring nothing more than temporary treatment at home for restoration, when removal to a hospital might prove a positive injury? How does he know that it is not the delirium of pneumonia or derangement of circulation from structural or other causes.

There are many cases of temporary insanity of acute form that are not connected with any structural change, but merely functional disturbances, which, for the good of the patient and economy to the State, should be treated at home, just as measles or typhoid fever is. The whole point rests in the recognition of the cause of insanity, and this is rarely within the scope of judge, jury, or commission.

A woman with puerperal mania is likely to recover fully in from thirty to ninety days. Shall she be taken from the bed of maternity, carried before a judge and jury, exposed to public gaze and the remarks of vulgar lawyers who infest our court-rooms? or shall the officers of the law inspect her? Would it not be better, if her medical adviser demands her removal for treatment, that she should be removed, not to the wards of a public hospital, where she may recover, it is true, but with a lasting sting of vile associations and public dis-

grace, with the stigma forever attached that she was once an inmate of a hospital for insane,—if, from peculiar environments, it is safer and better to be taken from home, would it not be better, I say, to have such a case removed without process of law, just as she might be with a fractured limb or with fever, to a private retreat or a general hospital? There is great need of both professional and general education upon this point.

Dr. Joseph Lallor, of the Richmond Hospital for Insane in Ireland, said to me nearly a quarter of a century ago: "We have hundreds of harmless insane in Ireland who either live at home or wander about the country, unmolested, who in America would be shut up. It is because here the people do not demand that every form of mental obliquity shall be treated and kept in hospitals, as they do in America."

If the present public sentiment regarding the danger and persistence of all forms of insanity increases during the next half-century as it has in the past, the entire revenues of a State will be insufficient to maintain the persons of recognized defective minds. The small State of Indiana to-day supports four hospitals for this class; and yet we are informed that each one is crowded to its utmost capacity, leaving some hundreds of chronic insane unprovided for. The day is past when mere alienation is regarded as a spiritual affliction purely; and intelligent medical men recognize the fact that the mental manifestations are but functional or organic defects, many of which are self-limited, many curable, and some incurable.

The remedy for the abuse of too frequent detention at public charge is that each State should have a board of experts who could be called to examine all questionable cases before the last resort to legal proceedings.

Each city having a general hospital should have a ward or rooms for temporary detention and treatment of emergency cases, instead of having the violent cases — as they frequently are — held in jails or police stations, waiting the slow process of the law and pleasure of the superintendent, during the very time they require the most active treatment. Some States have provided such houses of detention, where commitments may be made upon the certificate of a reputable medical man.

Where shall the insane be detained? might be answered, Wherever they can have the most freedom, the least personal restraint, the best climate and food, the most fresh air, and fewer keepers and watchers.

I predict that in fifty years the piled-up structures of architectural magnificence, with palatial officers' quarters in the centre, flanked by prison-cells, will stand empty monuments of our ignorance or will be changed into shops and factories or schools of learning; while true principles will prevail, and we shall learn better methods, looking backward to the little Belgian village where for hundreds of years the insane have been treated in simple fashion of village life.

Without doubt there are some insane who require restraint and careful watching; but they are the few. Gheel has some inhabitants that cannot be trusted at large; but no such horror could occur as has frequently occurred in the United States, where many have perished in the flames, and the air is almost tainted by the stench of roasted bodies of men who perished locked in cribs, as in the recent burning of the Hospital for Insane at Nashville.

Nowhere in the civilized world has the philanthropist done more in founding institutes of learning, establishing libraries, building general and special hospitals, than in the United States. But there yet remains one grand act of philanthropy which shall do more for humanity than all others. A starry crown and eternal fame await that one who will remember the "sick in mind" by establishing in some Southern land a new Gheel,— in a Southern land, because nearer the clime of perpetual verdure, blossoms, and birds and sea-breezes, insanity is least known and most easily cured.

The selection of agents to care for the insane would appear no difficult task, and would not be, provided they were selected on account of their peculiar fitness. It would be absurd to take an ordinary carpenter and elect him architect or master carpenter of the Columbian Exposition buildings or to elect the village blacksmith master mechanic to build an iron man-of-war in our navy yards. It is equally absurd to appoint as medical superintendent one who has not devoted years to the special study of psychiatry and the treatment of mental disease. He must have this acquirement, or he cannot command the proper treatment of his patients through his subordinate officers.

In most of our States and Territories the appointments of those who should treat the most serious and mysterious of all diseases are made by the same persons and in the same manner that the officers and guards of our prisons are, and it is for this reason that the results are about the same. Our hospitals are less places for treatment than they are *keeps* for the insane.

It is for this reason that so little real knowledge of the causes,

pathology, and treatment of the insane, has been developed in hospitals for the insane in the United States. Nearly all we have learned comes from experience, study, and the observation of men who were never superintendents of such institutions.

It is doubtful if one skilful physician could examine twenty patients per day at his office and do justice to the patients. What must be the condition, then, in a hospital of fourteen hundred or more patients, with a medical staff of four to six physicians, most of whom are appointed for their politics only? What likelihood is there of careful study of each case in all its various changing symptoms? The large amount of abuse and general neglect — hence long and expensive detention of the insane — comes directly from the method of appointing and selecting those who are to be with them and care for them.

It is largely, if not entirely, due to this Association that many of the important reforms have been brought about in the management of hospitals for the insane. There is yet much to do in cultivating public opinion regarding the true character of the various diseases which are manifested by alienation.

The way to remedy the present evil of neglect in proper treatment of the insane in public hospitals would be to educate alienists, just as we educate our best physicians and surgeons. A young man who desires to be either, after graduating, presents himself for hospital appointment by competitive examination, and, if successful, serves eight months as a junior, eight months as a senior, and eight months as house physician or surgeon, as the case may be; and at no time does he receive any compensation except a part of the time his board, etc. By such a system we should soon have as good alienists as we now have surgeons, gynecologists, oculists, dentists, etc.

Another point gained in the plan would be that a sufficient number of trained medical men would be in attendance to study and observe patients constantly, not only giving better treatment, but putting a check upon abuses by attendants. The fact is, I doubt if there is a single large hospital for insane in the United States having sufficient medical help to properly study the cases in hand.

By introducing much smaller and cheaper hospitals, by requiring greater medical attention to each patient, by causing the adoption of uniform laws regarding the commitment of patients, by simplifying emergency methods,— so that the patients may be treated promptly, and *not* after the disease has done its greatest injury, which is usually

during the first few days,— and, finally, by encouraging the establishment of a new Gheel, where the village system may be tried under more favorable conditions than in the old colony of that name, when cottages of improved modern construction may be rented for patients of any class, when the person of wealth or of most meagre income may be able to find an abode, private and retired from the objectionable features of public hospital life,— when in this new Gheel schools are established, various industries are carried on for the patients, and a place of special instruction for physicians in psychiatry and all its collateral branches is provided, then by these means, I say, the old order of things shall have passed away, and the present evils will be abolished.

To sum up these suggestions, I would recommend: —

First, that uniform laws be enacted in all our States and Territories regarding detention.

Second, that in emergencies the commitment be a simple form, and the admission be to any general hospital until the more formal proceedings can be had.

Third, that in questionable cases an expert or experts be called.

Fourth, that the commitment be final so far as admission to the hospital is concerned, and not to be revised by the superintendent until he has examined the case.

Fifth, that the lives of the detained insane shall not be put in jeopardy by being imprisoned by hundreds in three to four story buildings, locked in cells or cribs by irresponsible attendants.

Sixth, that all hospitals or departments for insane women shall be under the control of female physicians.

Seventh, that no physician shall have charge of and treat the insane, in any hospital, until he has gained by study and experience the knowledge required by an expert alienist.

THE COMMITMENT OF THE INSANE.

BY DR. A. R. MOULTON,

INSPECTOR OF INSTITUTIONS FOR MASSACHUSETTS.

While the conditions of different communities present phases peculiar to the locality, which necessarily influence society and methods of business in different ways, there are underlying princi-

ples in the commitment of the insane which should be observed in all localities.

The insane, being sick, should not be subjected to legal forms of commitment so rigid in their requirements as to injure an individual case. Without making any reference at this time to the convict or criminal insane, but confining myself to the ordinary insane in the community, I would say that there should be three forms of commitment of such patients to hospitals designed for their care; namely, voluntary, judicial, and emergency commitments.

Voluntary commitments should apply to individuals who are on the "border lands" of insanity, or who appreciate the vital importance of early treatment and are competent to apply for aid. Absolute compliance with a legal technicality may restrict such commitments to those who are not insane; but proper interpretation or just construction of law would broaden the field, allowing certain patients actually insane to obtain the benefits of treatment without incurring the expense of more formal commitment. In practice, it is found that a considerable number who have suffered an attack of insanity apply for aid when they feel the approach of symptoms which experience has taught them are precursory of grave mental disease. Probably it would be wise to have a certificate from the patient's physician approving or recommending the step; and the State Board of Lunacy, or the Board acting as such, should approve the voluntary commitment after the patient has been received at the hospital. In States where there are no Boards of Lunacy or Charity, the approval of a judicial officer should be affixed to the application. The superintendent of the hospital should be allowed to receive or decline to admit the person, according to circumstances.

Judicial commitments should be made upon the certificate of physicians, who should certify independently and state in writing the reasons for their conclusions. Such certificates should be accompanied by a full history of the case, and the names and addresses of all individuals who are parties to the transaction should be inserted in the blanks. The functions of the committing authority are those of a judiciary officer, who should see that certain legal forms have been complied with and approve them, if they have been. It is assuming knowledge which few judges possess for the justice to pass on the insanity of the patient; but at his discretion he should be permitted to have the condition of the individual determined by a competent jury. That the recovery of some patients might be retarded or pre-

vented if all were subjected to jury trial there can be no question; yet cases may arise where it would be for the protection of the community and support of the certifying physicians to have their examination supplemented by the deliberations of a jury. In thickly populated communities it might be wise to have a board of salaried physicians, skilled in mental disease, to examine all persons for whose commitment application is made.

In case a patient is violently insane, or in such a condition that he should be restrained with the least possible delay, either for the protection of the public or for his own good, he should be received into the hospital as an *emergency case* upon the certificate of one physician, or, if there is no physician available, upon the request of a town or municipal officer. An emergency commitment should be accompanied by a suitable agreement from the physician or official that he will, within a brief space of time, varying necessarily in different States, have the patient judicially committed, or, failing in which, he will remove him from the institution.

The power of discharge should be vested in numerous bodies. Primarily, that right should rest in the hands of the trustees (a minority of whom should be legally empowered to discharge), and they should delegate it to the superintendent, that a recovered patient might not be retained awaiting the regular meeting of the Board. Various judges should have authority, under proper restrictions, to discharge inmates of any hospital in the State where they have jurisdiction. Lastly, the State Board of Charities (or other boards having charge of lunacy matters) or the Governor of the Commonwealth should exercise this function, when the interests of the patient or the good of the community demands it. The superintendent should be allowed to grant parole to suitable patients, allowing them to make visits to their friends, and permitting them to return within three or six months without new commitments, if they are unable to sustain themselves at their homes.

If local almshouses were under the supervision of the State, whose officers had the authority to prescribe the treatment of their inmates, certain mild, demented, and old insane persons might be cared for therein, provided the almshouses were subject to the immediate visitation of a carefully chosen committee of women. But the almost universal result of almshouse care has been so prejudicial to the best interests of the insane, it is proper to assert that the mentally affected should not be compelled to live in institutions primarily pauper in

their sentiments, but that they should be amid surroundings in which their treatment is curative, or under conditions where it may be applied when occasion arises. Proper conditions, if not curative, are toward training patients to keep them up to a high standard; and almshouses are seldom, if ever, supplied with a staff sufficient for such work.

In co-operation with the hospitals, the work of boarding out patients in private families, a most humane and beneficent adjunct in the treatment of insanity, should be carried on. Such patients should be under close medical observation, and visited frequently.

There should be in each State, either in connection with the State prison or, preferably, independent of the prison, a hospital for the treatment of the convict and criminal insane, that those who have led blameless lives may not be brought in contact with those of vicious instincts or habits. The laws applying to such classes must, of necessity, vary somewhat from those already outlined.

Private asylums should be subject to the same rules and regulations as the public institutions, and the superintendents of all hospitals and asylums where insane are cared for should make weekly returns to the State Board of all movements of population, accidents, and other information which public officials have a right to know.

The above remarks apply to the insane under certain conditions, and are not intended to do more than point to a few essentials, most of which are embodied in the lunacy laws of Massachusetts, which work satisfactorily for the class of citizens in that community.

VOLUNTARY OR SELF-COMMITMENT TO INSANE HOSPITALS.

BY RICHARD DEWEY, M.D., KANKAKEE, ILL.

The proposition that persons who are insane either could or would go to insane hospitals of their own free will would perhaps be thought absurd by most of those who had given the matter no attention. They would regard it as inconceivable that any one should go willingly to an institution for the insane.

The only persons generally known to have gone voluntarily to any insane asylum are perhaps the reporters for certain newspapers in different parts of the country, who, inspired by the ambition of jour-

nalistic enterprise, have been sent as patients to various asylums, gaining admission by shamming insanity, for the sake of informing the public what was going on "behind the bars," reforming real or imaginary abuses, furnishing some reading matter calculated to make the ears of the public tingle, and incidentally swelling the editions and receipts of the journal employing their services.

And upon this subject a momentary digression. It has been thought strange by the public that a sane man — newspaper reporter or otherwise — could gain admission to an insane retreat without being at once detected and recognized by the authorities. And an inference has been drawn from this fact that sane persons in general could be admitted and confined as patients in pursuance of some designing motives, persons who do not wish to be so admitted and confined. But the two cases are radically different, as a moment's reflection will show. In the one case, an individual is feigning insanity with motive and desire of being admitted and detained as a patient, and in the other — if such a case occurred — the first thing that would take place would be the demand of the wronged and unwillingly detained individual to have his case looked into and his rights secured. Whether hospital officials were or were not vigilant, it is scarcely to be expected that they would be on the lookout for sane persons who, instead of wishing or demanding their release, were desirous of preventing such a consummation, and of remaining as inmates.

This, however, is a matter aside from the subject I wish now to present, which is the idea of persons who are actually insane, or on the border line of insanity, voluntarily going into the insane hospital, and committing themselves to its care. This idea cannot be said to be new, though it is new to the general public; for voluntary commitment has existed, and has been recognized by law in one State of the Union (Massachusetts) for ten years past, is now incorporated in the statutes of two other States (Pennsylvania and Connecticut), and is likely to be soon added in a third (Illinois); and it is furthermore a fact that persons as truly insane as most of the inmates of any public asylum have always gone voluntarily to be treated in private sanitariums and hospitals.

The boundary between insanity and sanity is not the hard-and-fast line it is generally supposed to be: it is a plain enough division in the abstract, but, when applied to concrete cases, is often purely artificial and arbitrary. There are plenty of cases of both sanity and

insanity about which all the world would agree, but there are multitudes of others lying upon the boundary line between the territories of reason and madness. There are hosts of individuals who divide their lives between these two countries, flitting to and fro almost as the weather changes. To-day they are sweetly reasonable, and to-morrow strangely mad; and so their lives appear as a patchwork of sense and folly inextricably combined. Other persons there are who are at one time sane, and then become insane, and then come back to reason; and this may occur once in their lives, or may occur repeatedly, and yet the precise point at which they cross the line is not to be absolutely fixed. To discover it is like trying to find the exact spot where the blue becomes green or green passes into yellow in the rainbow or the spectrum.

Adopting this simile, and taking blue for soundness of mind, green for the border line, and yellow for madness, we may apply a figurative spectroscope to the mental operations of individuals, and we shall find some whose chromatic spectrum is uniformly blue, others always yellow, and others which will be blue at one end, green at the other, with yellow spots scattered all the way along. We may find in other persons blue to-day, green to-morrow, and yellow the next day, and it will depend upon the particular time or place at which we observe the spectrum what opinion we may form; while at other times we are uncertain whether the color presented is yellow, green, or blue, and we must perforce content ourselves with calling it a "yellowish-green" or a "greenish-blue." There are some cases in which there is only a single yellow spot, and that not easy to find. Finally, there are some persons who can apply spectrum analysis to themselves, can recognize their own yellow spot at a time when there is still much blue, and when, perhaps, the yellow fleck could scarce be detected by others; and here are the cases in which self-commitment to an insane hospital would be beneficial. Such persons as these are the ones who would be benefited by an arrangement such as voluntary commitment provides, with the privilege of going quietly of their own free will to be cared for and treated in the hospital, without the otherwise necessary publicity from which they naturally shrink. Many such cases have I met with in my own experience. Again and again have applications been made to me, as to all in similar positions, by persons who wished to be admitted to the hospital on their own request, to whom I have been obliged, in accordance with the law, to refuse admission, yet who have often later been compelled to come,

when no longer capable of judging or giving consent, when the mental state had so changed that they violently opposed their commitment, and when, most unfortunately, recovery was perhaps no longer possible or sure to be greatly delayed.

In mentioning some of the cases in which voluntary or self-commitment would be beneficial, I may quote from a recent number of the *Journal of Nervous and Mental Diseases.* In the issue of February, 1891, of this *Journal*, Dr. Ralph L. Parsons has a thoughtful paper on this subject, in which he describes the persons to whom voluntary commitment would be beneficial, as follows: —

There are many nervous invalids who have not yet so far lost the use of their reason that they could properly be declared lunatics, but yet whose minds and nervous systems are so far disordered that they need the same sort of care and attention as is given in hospitals for the insane, and who are desirous of placing themselves under treatment in some particular hospital.

Dr. Parsons further states: —

There is yet another class of persons who are not technically insane, but yet whose minds are as really disordered as are the minds of many certified lunatics. I refer to the victims of various drug habits. These persons are not vicious, nor were they in any way knowingly responsible for their condition. They have become the slaves of opium or alcohol through the immediate influence of disease, as in the case of some women after childbirth, or through the unfortunate advice of some physician or friend.

Such as these are eminently proper persons to be accorded the privilege of entering the hospital.

Dr. William D. Granger, in the same *Journal*, writing upon the same subject, says: —

Those who apply and might properly be admitted include cases of neurasthenia, of extreme "nervousness" and insomnia, those suffering from mental worry and fatigue, cases of grave hysteria, chorea, and hypochondria, certain cases of epilepsy, many cases of "habit," border-line cases of threatened insanity, cases of simple depression, mild cases of melancholia, cases of limited mental disturbances; also where commitment is desired, but legal certificate cannot be made out.

Dr. Granger, speaking of the law, continues as follows: —

In the State of Pennsylvania the law permits the admission of voluntary patients for detention in asylums on their signing a request for admission, witnessed by a friend, and approved by a physician of

the asylum. The admission is for a period of seven days only, but is subject to renewal.

In the State of Connecticut a person may commit himself upon his own written application to any asylum in the State, but must be discharged upon a written notice within ten days.

The English Lunacy Act of 1890 provides for admission of voluntary patients or boarders into licensed asylums.

Permission is granted by personal request in each case, signed by either two members of the English Lunacy Commission or by two justices. It is for a given time, subject to a renewed permission. At the end of the time named in the permit, unless renewed, the person must be discharged. If at any time the person makes a written request to leave, he must be permitted to do so within twenty-four hours.

But the most notable instance of the practice of voluntary commitment is in the McLean Asylum of Boston, Mass. This institution admits voluntary patients under a provision of the State law, which allows them to be received in the State hospitals and in that institution. I here quote from the reports of Dr. Edward Cowles, superintendent of the McLean Asylum, as follows: —

The voluntary system, as it has been in practice here in the nine years since the enactment of the law establishing it, has yielded most beneficial results. It has not only been a blessing to the many patients who have gladly availed themselves of its benefits, but it has done good to the asylum itself in stimulating improvement in the care of all its patients. Many persons who are in the earlier stages of melancholia, or have some one of the milder forms, are well aware of the nature of their illness, and yield readily and often gladly to the advice of friends or physicians to place themselves under special care. Intelligent patients appreciate the privilege of avoiding a formal examination and the dreaded declaration of insanity; and therefore, with the voluntary system, they seek the hospital care earlier, and under the helpful influence of the consciousness that it is their own act.

The essential value of this system is that its success depends upon the active exercise of human sympathy and mutual confidence in the place of custodial restraint; and not only are the conditions of "moral treatment" rendered greatly more effective, but all who are concerned in these kindlier relations are lifted up by them. It is significant that in the nine years' working of the voluntary law of Massachusetts so little criticism of it has been made, and so much good has come out of it, of a kind that none but those who make use of it can properly appreciate.

Dr. Cowles further states: —

About one-third of those admitted to McLean come as voluntary patients. 42 such cases were admitted in the year 1889. . . . These 42 patients furnished 11 recoveries during the year, and of 29 such cases from the preceding year there were 5 recovered, giving 38 per cent. of recovered on the admissions of that class in 1889.

Quoting further from Dr. Parsons, I mention another great advantage which would accrue from voluntary commitment: —

The association of voluntary patients in the same hospital with committed patients is of advantage to the latter in another way. If the patients in a particular hospital are [all] certified lunatics, the mere fact of having been an inmate of that hospital affixes the stigma of being, or having been, a lunatic. The hospital, too, becomes distinctly known as a lunatic asylum, a crazy house, or a "luny" house, and its inmates lunatics.

Whereas, if patients who have the use of their reason, or who at least are not technically insane, are associated in the same hospital with patients whose insanity requires to be certified, the latter are relieved to a great extent, if not altogether, from the implication which a residence in such a hospital would otherwise involve. Now, the friends of insane patients, and the patients themselves, after their recovery, highly appreciate the advantage thus afforded; while the voluntary patients have no cause of complaint, because they have had their own choice, and in any case are supported by the knowledge that they are not certified lunatics, and so class themselves with the sane members of the family. It is of no avail to urge that insanity is no more disgraceful than any other disease, and is less disgraceful than many others; for all rational persons know and feel that the loss of the reason involves disability, and oftentimes a degradation, compared with which almost any other calamity sinks into insignificance.

It is impossible in so brief a paper to treat this subject thoroughly; but, in endeavoring to sum up the advantages of voluntary commitment, I may say: —

First, if it is made possible for persons to go to hospitals for the insane precisely as they would go to any other hospital, many who would never consent to go by legal commitment, because they must thus become insane persons in the eye of the law, would consent to go, and thus gain the advantages of the institution without the injury to their prospects which must necessarily follow a public record of insanity.

Second, very many persons would go in the early and most curable stages of the disease, at a time when they could not, if they would, be

legally committed, and, going at a more favorable stage of the disease would more speedily and perfectly recover.

Third, certain forms of nervous and mental malady, not strictly coming under the head of insanity, could receive appropriate treatment, which would otherwise be beyond their reach.

Fourth, it is important to consider the advantage in voluntary commitment to persons of limited means. The affluent now obtain, and always have more or less obtained, these advantages by willingly going to private hospitals; and it is an advantage which those in moderate or even destitute circumstances could enjoy if voluntary commitment were permitted in the public hospitals.

If we inquire whether there are disadvantages which would accompany this privilege, the following may be mentioned: —

First, imposition might be attempted by the undeserving. This, however, can surely be provided against, as any other imposition may be. It is not proposed that there shall be anything compulsory upon the institutions in receiving such inmates, and the unworthy can always be denied or speedily discharged.

Second, the lines might be obscured, so that the public would no longer know, or know even less than it does now, who was sane and who insane in the eye of the law, but actually insane persons, who need the interference of the law, would certainly be no less amenable with than without the existence of the privilege of voluntary commitment to an insane hospital; and the law certainly never intends that any person shall be regarded as insane unless the insanity is unmistakable. It also provides all needful remedies for the care and control of any actually insane person, who actually needs its interference.

Third, it might possibly be apprehended that persons coming voluntarily would be detained forcibly. It is an adequate reply to this to say that the practice of voluntary commitment already obtains, and always has, extensively in private asylums; and no case has come to light in which it has been complained that a person going voluntarily was involuntarily detained. Furthermore, the law now provides the fullest remedy against unjust detention.

At the foundation of the idea of voluntary or self commitment to an insane hospital lies the thought which has been so fruitful of benefit to the insane in other ways,—of making the abode and the life of such persons as near like the life of the sane as the conditions of insanity will admit; and, granting that this is possible only to a limited extent,

yet no one will deny that, so far as it is possible and wherever consistent with the best treatment, it is desirable.

But there is a growing conviction in the minds of many whose opinions are entitled to weight that it will eventually be seen that many of the difficulties which seem to be inseparable from insanity will disappear with more natural conditions and environments, because the progress already made in rendering the life of the insane in institutions more natural, domestic, and homelike, has shown the existence of many preconceived notions which were erroneous, and demonstrated that many of the most forbidding and painful features of insanity were the result, not of the disorder itself, but of unenlightened and unworthy methods of dealing with the insane.

THE WISCONSIN SYSTEM OF COUNTY CARE OF THE CHRONIC INSANE.

BY HON. H. H. GILES.

The problem of the humane yet economical care of the increasing number of the insane is taxing the best thought of the philanthropist and statesman. Every one concedes the duty of society to provide all needed comforts for those who are deprived of right reason. For over forty years a generous impulse controlled in the erection of magnificent public buildings for the insane, costing from eight to eighteen hundred dollars per capita for the accommodations furnished. A special class, or class of specialists, organized as the "Association of Medical Superintendents of American Institutions for the Insane," assumed to possess superior wisdom in all matters pertaining to insanity, and guided legislation into the erection of "palace prisons," in which from five to fifteen hundred, and even two thousand, diseased human beings are herded. To gain and retain its hold on the public, two pleas were urged: —

First, "State care for all the insane" was prerequisite to humane care; and, second, all classes of the insane should be cared for in the same institution. Both pleas were false, and the latter positively pernicious; and yet nothing less would have justified the increase of capacity of our hospitals from two hundred, the original maximum number to be in one institution, up to any or no limit in number.

One who has watched with deep interest the work of the Association

for forty years can well understand how the great State of New York has been led into a scheme of "State care" that, if carried out, involves the imposition of many millions in taxes upon her people that might have been saved, and her insane dependants more humanely cared for, nearer their homes and friends. One Howard on her State Board of Charities, or one Dorothea Dix in her State Charities Aid Association, gifted with deep conviction and earnest purpose, could have popularized a movement in favor of reforming her county asylums that would have removed the stigma of "pauper care." But the class of specialists before named had its satellites in prominent positions in all the benevolent and charitable organizations of the State, and through them controlled legislators and shaped legislation.

Ten years ago a movement started in the State of Wisconsin, originating with the State Board of Charities and Reform, looking towards a more humane as well as economical care of the chronic insane.

The specialists opposed it, denounced it, and predicted dire results if it was not abandoned. It has become known as the "Wisconsin System of County Care for the Insane."

April 1st last, 1,830 insane were cared for, and 1,046, or over 57 per cent. of the whole number were on parole, and allowed to go around without an attendant. In addition, 86 were away among their friends on leave of absence.

The counties have been encouraged to provide accommodations for a greater number than their own, to meet the increase as well as to be able to receive from smaller counties that could not profitably furnish the desired accommodations. The county boards of supervisors provide for the erection of the buildings under the general authority conferred by law to contract public buildings for the county. They also make appropriations for improvements and repairs, as well as current expenses of the asylum. They elect three trustees, who have immediate charge and control of the asylum; and the trustees elect a superintendent and asylum physician.

All plans for buildings for the insane are submitted to the State Board for approval. The State Board limited the normal capacity of the buildings to one hundred patients, believing that fifty of each sex was as many as could receive individual attention from the superintendent and matron. Seventeen of the twenty have the extraordinary capacity of one hundred and twenty each without overcrowding.

I here note an objection we have often heard, founded on the proverbial stinginess of county boards of supervisors. It is true that

these county boards usually have a large sprinkling of incipient statesmen, who are ambitious to establish a reputation for economy in spending the money of the "dear people." It is a full answer to this objection that the State Board is the only medium through which the county can get any money from the State treasury, since it must certify to the Secretary of State that the insane have been cared for as provided by the rules established. If the supervising board does its duty, the county will meet all its requirements. In but one instance in ten years since the system was established has the State Board of Wisconsin exercised the authority conferred by law. In that case, the chairman of the county board was notified that no more bills from the county against the State would be approved until the administration of the asylum was changed. In less than a week a new superintendent was in charge of the institution, and all was satisfactory.

As a rule, the county boards have been liberal in making appropriations for improvements and repairs, and in the purchase of additions to the asylum farms, and have generally worked in harmony with the State Board.

While the county system was imperfectly understood, it required a good deal of talk to the county board to persuade its members that it was for the interest of the county to provide accommodations for the care of its own insane. Now the case is different, and there is a strife as to what county shall be allowed to build the next asylum wanted; and the State Board are enabled to locate to the best public advantage.

The biennial reports of the State Board have given somewhat detailed statements of the financial workings of our county asylums. From the published statements, many readers in other States who have never visited them have reached the conclusion that, with an average weekly per capita cost of one dollar and seventy cents ($1.70) the patient must be poorly fed, shabbily clothed, and poorly cared for generally, while a personal inspection will demonstrate that the food is ample and well cooked, the clothing comfortable, and the care humane; with few knickknacks, but plenty of bread and butter, meat and vegetables, with milk, tea, and coffee, all in abundance. A county asylum resembles a family in fairly well-to-do circumstances, each able-bodied member doing something to contribute to the general support.

The county farms contain from eighty to three hundred and fifty

acres of good land. Most of the food consumed is raised on the farm by the labor of the insane.

Twelve of the twenty asylums have a common dining-room, with a seating capacity for over one hundred patients; and, with the kitchen adjoining, the food is served warm and in good condition. The citizens of the counties having asylums take great interest in their management, as is shown by the fact that in one month, March, two had over two hundred visitors, six over one hundred and fifty, nine over one hundred, and fourteen over fifty each. With such a number coming and going, and many of them being relatives and friends of the insane, it is not possible for abuses to be practised and not reach the public ear.

In the experience of the State Board with the chronic insane in the county poorhouses, it was found that many of them, though apparently demented, as some of them really were, could be aroused to new life, and by persistent personal effort could be induced to do some kind of work or be diverted from their delusions.

Having failed, year after year, too, in getting appropriations by the legislature to build another State hospital or enlarge the existing ones, the Board turned its attention to the improvement of the condition of the neglected creatures in the poorhouses and jails. They were taken from cells and dungeons out into light and liberty, and treated like human beings. Violent lunatics were taken from jails to the county farms and persuaded to work. Demented men and women were taught to scrub the floors, wash the dishes or work in the laundry; while the same class of men sawed and split the wood and did the work on the farm.

The members of the State Board preached "occupation" for every insane man and woman to the overseer of county farms. The result of four or five years of this kind of work was a revelation to all interested, who saw the demented aroused, the filthy become cleanly, the violent calm and quiet, illusions and hallucinations crowded out of diseased brains, and a decided general improvement in the mental as well as physical condition of at least four-fifths of all those wrought upon or experimented with.

And yet there was no science applied, nor expert knowledge used, but only the exercise of simple common sense. The insane were treated as human beings. Our system of county care started in the poorhouses, and to get better accommodations for the insane and pay the counties for kind and humane care was the natural outgrowth.

In our State hospitals, as organized, the work done in our county asylums is hardly practicable. They have a well-equipped medical staff, that is regarded, and justly so, as an essential requirement for curing recent cases of insanity. Although somewhat of a digression from the subject of this paper, I wish to offer a suggestion that may lead to a wide discussion. We have seen that occupation lessens restraint; that the employed patient needs no restraint, either chemical or mechanical. We believe that there should be organized in every large hospital an industrial department to educate the patients in varied industries, and that every able-bodied patient should be employed in doing something. A class of acute cases might temporarily have to be confined to a ward; but we have faith that the coming hospital will have open wards with unlocked doors, for their inmates will during the daytime be employed in the shops or on the farm.

With occupation, non-restraint follows as a natural sequence. At least, it seems to be natural; for it has quite uniformly followed in our experience. Our small asylums possess a great advantage over the large hospitals, in that occupation can be furnished for all, and with the limited small number personal attention can be bestowed upon each case, and that all physically able do some kind of work and are employed some part of the time. Ours is the much eulogized "cottage system," with the difference that the cottages, instead of being grouped, are widely scattered. Human beings enjoy freedom and are restive under restraint. The insane are still men and women, and the love of liberty is not quenched by a diseased condition of some brain organ.

Constant surveillance, with locks and bolts and bars, with high board fences, now greatly gone into disuse, with continued duress, causes a nervous irritation that prevents recovery; while forced association with twenty or thirty other insane people in locked wards aids in confirming a delusion.

In our State hospitals a majority of the patients are longing for freedom, and beg in pitiful pleas to be allowed to "go home." In our county asylums there are few who are not contented, and this fact is conclusive evidence that the care is humane. When a superintendent was asked why the men at work scattered over the farm, as seen from the building, did not run away, his reply was, "Because they can."

A young man was taken from a State hospital to a county institution who was noted for running away on every occasion that offered.

The superintendent installed him as mail-carrier, and instructed him to come to the office and take the mail-bag to the post-office, about three-fourths of a mile away, every time he saw a passenger train pass. The little fellow became interested in his work and felt himself responsible for the whole post-office department, and could not be driven away. The great aim is to waken the interest of every insane man and woman in something; and one without experience with the class would be surprised to learn how easily it can be done, how great an interest they take, and how great a transformation takes place in a short time.

We have no resident physician in our county asylums, nor is one needed. As a rule, the chronic insane are as free from the usual diseases that affect humanity as an equal number of people outside. An asylum physician is appointed by the trustees, and it is made his duty to visit the institutions weekly and whenever called. It is also made his duty to inspect the sanitary condition of the buildings and outhouses, and report quarterly to the State Board. In any exigency requiring the immediate presence of a physician, he can respond to a call in from twenty minutes for the nearer to two hours for the farthest.

The insane being near their relatives and friends, the clothing bills of some of the counties are quite low, one being less than two hundred dollars, while the highest for last year was over seventeen hundred dollars.

I can best illustrate the economy of county care in Wisconsin by giving a comparison between the cost of three principal items, that of salaries, subsistence, and wages, in our county asylums and State hospitals for the year 1890.

The average annual expense per patient in the two State hospitals and the average in county asylums were as follows:—

Salaries and wages in State hospitals,	$6,229
Salaries and wages in county asylums,	3,212
Subsistence in State hospitals,	7,106
Subsistence in county asylums,	2,964
Fuel in State hospitals,	2,270
Fuel in county asylums,	1,091

I here assert that in no case is the saving in expense gained by any loss of efficiency or comfort to the inmates. Our State hospitals are as economically yet efficiently managed as those of any other State, and as organized we cannot see where expenses can be much reduced.

In our county asylums we have no expensive corps of officers. The subsistence is mainly raised upon the farms and by the labor of inmates; and the fuel is prepared during the fall and winter months, to give employment to the insane.

County care has become the settled policy of the State, and now meets the approval of all classes of our population.

The Wisconsin system of county care of the chronic insane was provided for in a law enacted in 1881, entitled "An Act to provide for the humane care of the chronic insane not otherwise provided for." The act provided for county care under State supervision.

Section 1 of the act reads as follows: "Whenever it shall appear to the State Board of Charities and Reform that insufficient provision has been made for the care and support of the insane in the State hospitals and county asylums previously established according to law, said Board may file with the Secretary of State a list of counties in which no county asylum exists and which in the opinion of said Board possess accommodations for the proper care of the chronic insane; and thereafter each of said counties so named which shall care for its own chronic insane under such rules as said Board shall prescribe, on the verified certificate of said Board to the Secretary of State, shall receive the sum of one dollar and fifty cents per week for each person so cared for and supported as hereafter provided."

The chronic insane only are provided for. All acute cases remain in the State hospitals.

Under the law, the Board was authorized to transfer insane from counties that had not made suitable provision for their care to any county asylum that could receive them, and for all such so transferred the county caring for them should receive the sum of three dollars per week and the expense of clothing. Of the three dollars, the State paid one half and the county to which they belonged the other half.

Incidentally, I remark that for each patient cared for in our State hospitals the county to which he belongs pays one dollar and fifty cents per week. It will thus be seen that a county caring for its own insane really gets three dollars per week in what it saves and what it receives. Under the law, twenty counties have provided accommodations for the care of their own insane, and one other has contracted for the erection of buildings.

THE NEW YORK LAW FOR THE STATE CARE OF THE INSANE.

BY OSCAR CRAIG,

PRESIDENT STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES, NEW YORK.

You will credit me with sincere regret and with sympathy in your natural feeling of disappointment that any event out of our control should have intervened to prevent the presentation of the paper by the person and on the subject appointed at the last Conference. But, as one of the two substitutes recently assigned in the place of the person of your first choice, I have very gladly acquiesced in the assignment also of two substitutes for the subject first selected, and accepted the one defined for me in my letter of invitation, in this concrete and proper form; namely,

"The New York Law, and Reasons urged in its Favor; and the General Advantages of State Care."

Early in the century the State authorized the town overseers of the poor to send dependent insane to the New York hospital. A generation later, in 1843, the State Lunatic Asylum at Utica was established. But the great mass of indigent insane were left in the poor-houses. This condition of things was represented to the legislature by successive memorials and reports, among which may be mentioned the memorial of the county superintendents of the poor in 1856, and nine years later the report of Dr. Willard. Partial relief was given in 1865 by the act creating the Willard Asylum for the Chronic Insane. Authority to determine what counties should be placed under the provisions of this act was given by it to the trustees of the asylum, subject to the approval of the governor; and in 1870 they, with his approval, designated all the counties of the State except Albany and Jefferson and the counties independent of the terms of the act,— namely, New York, Kings, and Monroe. But the census of the indigent and chronic insane in the designated counties exceeded the capacity of the asylum, being in the proportion of four to one. The result was more than a miscarriage of relief, for it carried to the officers of these counties a legal command which could not be obeyed.

To remove this scandal and to prevent special legislation on the subject, the legislature, by a general act in 1871, delegated to the State Board of Charities — which was created in 1867 — authority to

grant to county superintendents of the poor exemptions from the Willard Asylum Act, with power to revoke such exemptions, and to issue mandates for the removal of insane inmates of county poor-houses to State institutions. Thus was the legislative embarrassment resolved into an administrative difficulty.

During its administration of this law, through a period of nineteen years, the State Board exempted nineteen counties; recommended and through the friendly co-operation of county authorities, secured many removals from county to State care; directed and compelled one county superintendent to remove all the insane in his custody to a State institution; prevented all other counties which had applied, save one, from obtaining by special legislation exemptions which it had refused or conditioned; and promoted the act creating the Binghamton Asylum for the chronic insane, but failed to secure the translation into law of its other recommendations for further State relief of the same sort, though during the intervening time of fourteen years between the passage of the respective acts for the two State asylums for the chronic insane there were created three new State hospitals for the acute insane.

The embarrassments of this administration were (first) the evident intent of the statutes making State care permanent and county care provisional, but (second) the crowded condition of the State asylums, which required exemptions, in order to reform as well as to legalize the necessary poorhouse custody; while (third) the same condition rendered the power to revoke such licenses of county care, or to remove its subjects from county custody, and thus rightly to reform or regulate county asylums, simply nugatory and practically void.

In the midst of the difficulties, the president and the secretary of the State Board were loyal to the ideas and spirit which inform and influence hospital or medical treatment. While regarding the temporary rights of counties under the provisional policy of the legislature, they gave the preference to the practice as well as the principle of State care. The secretary, Dr. Hoyt, at the session of this Conference in Madison, maintained the affirmative of the issue in favor of State institutions for the chronic insane against the contention of representatives of Wisconsin for county asylums. In 1882 the former president, Mr. Letchworth, made an elaborate report to the Board, showing defects of the exempted asylums and some of their departures from the proper standard.

In the summer and fall of 1888 the standing committee on the

insane, appointed by the State Board of Charities, made a special examination of the asylums in the exempted counties, and reported their findings of fact, showing the existence of evils which should be remedied, with their opinion of the necessity and nature of legislative relief, to the Board, which accepted and adopted their report and transmitted it to the legislature of 1889. The general conclusions from the facts found were that the only permanent relief would be secured by State care or the alternative of county care so reformed as, among other things, to be governed by trustees appointed by the Supreme Court, which on its equity or chancery side is the guardian of the insane.

The State Board of Charities, in adopting this report, did not elect between the alternative remedies presented; but the majority of its members, including all of its said committee, did declare their choice in favor of exclusive State care. This good deliverance was made with due regard to the Wisconsin system as well as the county system under the New York exemption law. The reasons for this choice, therefore, are naturally presented in their relations to prominent points of the rejected systems.

In Wisconsin the statute provides for the appointment of the trustees of the county asylums by the respective boards of supervisors, thus suggesting pauper features. The general practice appears to be that the superintendents of the asylums are superintendents of the poorhouses, in which they sometimes reside (Report of 1887–88, pp. 16 and 20); the paupers and the insane have, in some counties, been housed in the same buildings or in those adjoining or adjacent (Reports of 1885–86, pp. 39, 48, 49, 52, 58, 59; and of 1887–88, p. 5), making open doors, one would think, not so very desirable in all respects; and in two counties, prior to 1886, contracts were suffered to continue until the discovery of gross abuses of the patients by the contractors (Reports of 1883–84, pp. 52, 53; and of 1885–86, p. 34); and, finally, the rules prescribe a "sufficient number of attendants," quite indefinite, and medical inspections at least once a fortnight, — only one-fourteenth of what should be required, especially in view of the admission that insane persons may be easily overworked (Report of 1887–88, p. 6), and of the often repeated assertion that the cost of maintenance is reduced by the earnings of the patients. The allusions in the successive reports of the State Board of Wisconsin to the abolition of mechanical and chemical restraints are, in effect, no more than simple references to similar reforms in New

York and other States; and the frequent mention of patients who are allowed to come and go as they please, evidently applies only to a fraction of about one-third, though it is pleasant to remark that the rule prescribing airing courts (Report of 1881, p. 18), which should rather be prohibited, appears to have been honored in the breach, and that such enclosures have been abolished (Reports of 1885–86, pp. 28, 38, 42, 44, 54; and of 1887–88, p. 8).

Little, if anything, is said in these reports as to whether the classification is good, or as to whether there are mixed dormitories or night wards without night attendants, where the cleanly and quiet cases are apt to be keen sufferers from the filthy and disturbed classes.

As one example of the relatively low standard of judgment determined by the legal provisions and procedure of Wisconsin, comparison is here made between two reports on the Ulster County Asylum in the State of New York. The first is a statement of a visit made July 11, 1888, by A. E. Elmore, W. W. Reed, and A. O. Wright, in behalf of the Wisconsin Board, and published in its annual report for 1887–88, at pages 193 and 194, from which the following excerpt is made, namely:—

"Altogether, we believe this institution has started on the right road, and only needs encouragement from the New York State Board of Charities to be made a very good county asylum."

The second report is of a visit made Sept. 20, 1888, by Commissioners Craig and Milhau, of the State Board of Charities of New York, adopted in the annual report of the Board issued in 1889 (pp. 191, 192), in which occurs the following passage:—

"In all the day-rooms and connecting hall for the men are only twelve chairs and two narrow benches without backs, capable of holding each three or four persons, making in all twelve good seats and about eight bad seats, in all twenty seats for thirty-one patients; while in said ward No. 2, the principal hall with sleeping-rooms for the insane men, are no chairs, benches, tables, or other pieces of furniture, except bedsteads. In the day hall and rooms for the insane women are only eleven chairs and no other seats, and no tables or other furniture for thirty-five patients; while in their principal dormitory hall and rooms are no chairs, benches, bureaus, stands, or other pieces of furniture, except bedsteads. Two of the associate dormitory rooms, each with seven or eight beds, have only one window each."

Here, it will be seen, were in the whole institution only thirty-one

seats for sixty-six patients. This fact was not mentioned in the report of the Wisconsin Board.

Comment on the rule of judgment in the first inspection as well as on the facts of the situation is unnecessary.

In observing these obvious defects in the standard as well as the actual status in Wisconsin, we are glad to note that everywhere they appear to be faults of the law, and not defaults of the Board, through the exceptional character and diligence of which it is certain there have been many successful contentions against evils (Report of 1885–86, p. 34, and other reports), and that results so far as they are good have been secured.

And it is owing to the Wisconsin Board to concede that, given the situation described, where only ten years ago county care kept patients without clothing, and others on straw bedded down as for horses and cows, and others over pig-pens, and while the State refused or neglected to grant the relief of its own direct care, it was the part of statesmanship and philanthropy in the members of the Board to devise the present scheme, and to develop it so well in practice as they have done.

At the same time it is due to the truth to say that the Wisconsin county care, as it appears from the clear and candid statements of the said reports, is open to many, if not all, of the objections on account of which the New York county care was condemned, and is inferior to the former New York State care of the chronic insane.

It is in accordance with the law of the relativity of knowledge that the foregoing comparisons of the Wisconsin system, which often has been put forth as representative county care, and the following discussion of objections to State care, enter into the consideration of the New York law.

It is often stated that small institutions are more favorable to individual treatment. Experience seems to show the contrary, in public asylums limited in the cost of maintenance. Classification can be secured only by means of many wards, without which there can be no differentiated or individual treatment.

It is sometimes said that in large hospitals or asylums the medical warden cannot personally care for each inmate. In answer, it may be said that the business of the superintendent is to superintend, and the duty of the different medical officers responsible to him is to give personal attention to their respective cases, as is very well illustrated in the relations of the president and professors of a university.

A cursory reading of the reports of the Wisconsin Board might impress a novice with the notion that county care affords better conditions for occupation and non-restraint of patients. But their successive statistics for February and March of this year show that their State hospitals, though dealing with the acute and more troublesome subjects, put a less proportion of cases in restraint and more in occupation than their county asylums.

The chronic character of cases committed to county care is pleaded in its justification. But "chronicity," if the word may be allowed, is not the equivalent or indication of incurability. Such forms of insanity as general paresis, and perhaps primary dementia, indicate from the outset structural changes of the nervous organism. Moreover, general paresis at the last as well as the first stage requires hospital treatment.

The line between curable and incurable cases or changes in the same case is variable, and can be discovered, if at all, by medical tests, but cannot be determined by a defined period of time or any legal criterion. It may correspond to one unit of time in one individual, and to ten units of time in another, and in either instance may be so uncertain as to require the continuance or repeated recurrence of hospital treatment. At last, if ever, when the poor patient is given over as incurable, he may need the better classification and environment and hygienic conditions of an institution under medical supervision.

On this point there is no better commentary than the deliverance of the county superintendents of the poor of New York in 1855, as follows: "Whereas, it is already conceded, and has been adopted as the policy of this State, that insanity is a disease requiring in all its forms and stages special means for treatment and care, therefore,—*Resolved*, That the State should make ample and suitable provision for all its insane not in a condition to reside in private families."

The indigent insane, as paupers, it is said, deserve nothing better than pauper or county care. Implied in this assertion is the assumption that the indigent or dependent insane *are* paupers. But the premise is false. Nevertheless, it has almost always passed current in discussion among laymen, and has sometimes received the imprimatur of distinguished authorities in social science. The fact that almost all the classes in question have trades or occupations and are willing workers, as paupers never are, shows the supposition to be erroneous. The mistake may be due to the pauper care which the dependent insane have received, or to their mental and moral

manifestations, which are often unjustly regarded not as effects, but as causes of their disease. The laborer or artisan or clerk or ordinary professional man does not enjoy an income sufficient to support himself or his wife, the mother of his children, when stricken with the mental malady, in a private institution, and at the same time maintain the rest of his family at home. The victims, therefore, become dependent on the public as indigent insane. But it may be safely affirmed that not five per cent. of the inmates of public institutions for the dependent insane are paupers in any proper sense.

The contention of economy is persistently pressed by the advocates of county care. Thus in Wisconsin it is urged that the current rates of expense per week in the county asylums are about two dollars per capita, with emphasis on the point that they are about one-half of those in the State hospitals. But in New York such cost for maintenance for State care in Willard Asylum for Chronic Insane was only two dollars and twenty-five cents, exclusive of salaries, about one-half that in the State hospitals for the acute insane. Moreover, there were outside of the city and county of New York and Kings County, containing the city of Brooklyn, only two counties which kept accounts of the insane department; and in these two counties such cost was greater than that at Willard. Under the new law, the charge for chronic insane in each of the State institutions includes clothing and breakage, and hospital treatment so far as needed, and is fixed at the low rate of two dollars and fifty cents, with the hope that, on the completion of the accommodations provided for, it may be reduced to the former rate at Willard.

As no issue is ever raised over State hospital treatment of acute insane, the unreasonable cost of hospital buildings is irrelevant. But recent buildings, ordinarily of the expensive class,— namely, infirmaries,— have been erected at Willard and Binghamton asylums for two hundred and fifty dollars per capita. These structures, however, were not in all respects up to the proper standard. The new law provides that the expense of additional buildings required for the chronic insane, "including the necessary equipment for heating, lighting, ventilation, fixtures, and furniture," shall not exceed five hundred and fifty dollars per capita. Comment is unnecessary.

The history of lunacy legislation and administration in New York, with references to the Wisconsin system, and a comparison of the general advantages of State care and county care having been given with undue brevity, we hasten to present some of the particular features of, as well as specific reasons for, New York's new law.

The new system makes State care coterminous with public care, with the exception of New York, Kings, and Monroe Counties, which were independent of the Willard Asylum Act, but with the option in each of these three excepted counties to come under the law. Monroe County has already elected to take its benefits and bear its burdens.

The new statute puts the State institutions, including the four hospitals for the acute insane, with the new St. Lawrence Hospital and the two asylums for the chronic insane, upon the same basis. These seven institutions are now hospitals for all the dependent insane. This feature of mixed hospitals or asylums for acute cases and all chronic classes of the insane was severely criticised by the former president of the State Board, Mr. Letchworth, than whom, perhaps, no alienist or specialist was better qualified to speak, from study and travel among institutions in this country and abroad. His opposition to this part of the new system did not, however, lead him to oppose the system as a whole. His noble nature overruled his special objection, for the sake of the general movement of progress toward State care.

It is contended by the proponents of the mixed system that its advantages are greater than its disadvantages. Among the grounds on which their contention is urged are the necessity of preserving an open way for free interchanges between hospital treatment and custodial or domiciliary care, following changes of condition in the same case, and the unwise as well as unscientific nature of the former procedure, under which were statedly removed all the classes who had passed the hospital limit of time, and thus had incurred the legal, if not the medical, sentence of incurability.

The statute provides that the new buildings necessary for the accommodation of the chronic insane shall be erected at a reasonable cost, as already stated, and, of more moment, that they shall be on the cottage plan, each with a capacity for population not less than ten nor more than one hundred and fifty patients.

The committee of the State Board having considered the question of the mixed system, and having dismissed it without coming to any conclusion on its merits, were of opinion that, in view of the restrictions respecting the cottage plan, and of the abolition of the two years' test, and of the necessity of a reconciliation of all friends of reformatory legislation, it was their duty to support the bill then pending in the legislature; and, their conscience being so informed,

they acted accordingly with the active support of State Commissioners William Rhinelander Stewart and Ripley Ropes.

This bill being in substance the same as the law in its present form, had, prior to the adoption of the report of the committee by the State Board, been introduced into the legislature by the State Charities Aid Association. This society has for its president Professor Chandler, of Columbia College, whose honored name is associated with good work in many public reforms; and it has for many years been composed of prominent citizens, including leaders of thought in Church and State and in benevolent and scientific circles. But it is acknowledged with common consent that the one person who initiated the movement for revision and reform of the lunacy law, and inspired it from beginning to end with the idea of exclusive State care, and carried it by persistent force and wise argument to success, is Miss Louisa Lee Schuyler.

Then the representative alienists and medical faculties and the most enlightened publicists of the State were united in support of the same measure.

In a matter concerning not the administration, but the reformation of the law, there was no reason why members of the official board should not act with unofficial but enlightened and representative bodies in securing a system which, if not absolutely, is relatively and reasonably good, and which is a decided improvement on that which it has supplanted.

With these combined forces the bill was nearly carried through the legislature of 1889, passing the Senate and failing only by a few votes in the Assembly. An associate bill drawn by Dr. Stephen Smith, the former distinguished commissioner in lunacy, and favored and forwarded by the said committee of the State Board of Charities, was enacted at the same session of the legislature, creating a commission in lunacy. On the appointment of its three members, only its learned and accomplished chairman, Dr. Carlos F. McDonald, had pronounced in favor of State care, while one of the others had been its radical opponent. But, after official investigation, the commission became a firm unit in favor of the bill which had so nearly become a law, and with its former friends did excellent service in procuring its enactment by the legislature of 1890. These reminiscences serve to commend the abstract merits of the measure, and also the personal merits of opponents as well as promoters of the movement, and tend to make the advocates of the reform charitable toward its early adversaries. In this spirit of mutual respect and

confidence, it is hoped that persons of all opinions will accept the logic of events, at least provisionally, and join hands in all just measures for a fair trial, on which, if the law should fail, it would be expected that its friends would contribute to joint efforts for its modification or the substitution of another system.

In this matter the leaders of the political parties have been superior to partisanship. The record would be incomplete without mention of Governor Hill and influential members of the legislature, including Senators McNaughton, Fassett, Stewart, and Robertson, and Assemblymen Crosby and Acer, and others, who secured the reformatory legislation to the State of New York.

The syllabus of the law, prepared and published by the State Charities Aid Association, is, with permission, appended.

There is no actor in the movement, now happily consummated, who is authorized to give a compendium of all the grounds on which all the movers were actuated in urging the enactment of the measure. But it is believed that such a complete synopsis would include the following summary of reasons, namely: —

First.— The medical supervision of the State hospital, with its semi-daily inspection of all its patients by competent and trustworthy physicians, and the absence of anything like it in the average county poorhouse or asylum, are reasons enough for exclusive State care.

Second.— The more beautiful environment of the State institution, with its adaptations and facilities for graduations and variations and successions of scene for different patients or phases of the same patient, tending to excite more healthy correspondence in their nervous organisms, and playing often the chief part in recovery, is sufficient to justify our contention in favor of State care.

Third.— The county institution with four wards, being two for each sex, has most inadequate means for classification, in that seldom will the cleanly and quiet cases be simply equal in number to the filthy and disturbed classes, so that almost always will such wards which the casual or superficial observer might call homelike in the daytime become in the night season, without night service, filled with disgusting and repulsive horrors for the better classes of patients.

Fourth.— Inasmuch as one hundred patients need as many classifications as do one thousand, but with wards containing twenty-five inmates each, the former population would fill only four, while the latter population would fill forty wards, it is manifest that the State institution, with the larger census, has the advantage over the county institution, with the smaller census.

Fifth.— Moreover, the State institution alone is likely to have the means for changes of classification to meet the demands of changes of cases, and, above all, changes in the same case.

Sixth.— The labor of the State patient is for his own benefit under medical supervision, while the labor of the county patient is for his own support without medical supervision.

Seventh.— In fine, the State institution always, and the county institution almost never, treats its patients as sick persons, as in fact they are, whether suffering from acute attacks or succumbing as chronic invalids.

Eighth.— The pauper associations of county care, caused by putting the indigent insane in the poorhouse or in a building adjoining or adjacent or on the poorhouse farm, or under poorhouse officials, are degrading to the indigent or dependent insane, who, as has been shown, are seldom paupers.

Ninth.— Individual care is practicable to a greater extent in a State institution, though larger, because its medical and personal treatment, its more extensive, varied, and inspiring environment, and its means for more correct and complete classification differentiate the treatment in accordance with the differing cases and changes of the same case.

Tenth.— Though the mixed system is not essential to exclusive State care, it has one important advantage in the opportunity which it gives for transfers back and forth between hospital and custodial or domiciliary treatment and care, following successive changes in the same case as well as changes of cases.

Eleventh.— While constant watch and ward by a central commission or board is impossible, it is the part of wisdom to provide a smaller number of larger institutions under the immediate control of medical superintendents of high honor, in order that the continuing influence of the supervising body may be kept alive in the intervals between its visits of inspection. Another and a similar advantage of such superior institutions is that they may be held to a reasonable standard without reducing them to one dead level of uniformity, but with the liberty which, within proper limits, leads to the differentiation which is the law of development.

Twelfth.— Though State care is based on humanity, and not on economy, it is, as has been shown, not less economical, while it is more humane.

Thirteenth.— The system of exclusive State care is more practical

as well as philosophical in its simplicity, as compared with the former exemption system of New York, or the present Wisconsin system which introduces State administration to correct the evils of county administration, and which, so far as it insures good results, is in reality qualified State care, encumbered with useless machinery, engendering unnecessary friction, and producing wasteful loss of power, as evidenced in limited results.

Fourteenth.— New York's new law is a development from the first principle of State care in the Willard Asylum Act; it is an evolution or growth, and not a special contrivance or creation.

Fifteenth.— While the county is for practical purposes the political unit, it is as such only a small and subordinate part of the whole, which is the State paramount and sovereign. The criminal law recognizes this principle in determining not only the nature and penalty of felonies and other offences, but their place as well as mode of punishment. Lunacy legislation even more legitimately proceeds upon the same basis; for its subjects, the insane, both by statute and common law, and in respect of person as well as property, are the wards of the State.

Abstract of an Act to promote the Care and Curative Treatment of the Pauper and Indigent Insane, etc.— Chapter 126 of Laws of 1890.

Sections 1 and 2. Provide that the State shall be divided into as many asylum districts as there are State insane asylums, by a Board composed of the State Commissioners in Lunacy, the president of the State Board of Charities, and the Comptroller; that certain State and County officials shall be notified of the classification of counties into districts by the Board; and that the Board shall have power to redistrict the State, when necessary.

Sect. 3. Authorizes the State Commission in Lunacy to cause removal from counties of such number of insane as can be accommodated, when vacancies in State asylums exist.

Sect. 4. States the manner in which the accommodations for the insane shall be provided. Inexpensive, detached buildings of moderate size shall be erected on the grounds of the existing State insane asylums, of sufficient number and capacity to accommodate all the pauper insane now in the poorhouses and almshouses of the State, with the exception of those in New York, Kings, and Monroe Counties. The buildings shall each accommodate not less than 10 nor more than 150 patients, and the cost of the buildings with equipment, including heating, lighting, ventilation, fixtures, and furniture, shall not exceed $550 per capita. The plans to be approved by the Board created by this act.

SECT. 5. Provides that the State asylum of each district shall receive all the pauper and indigent insane of the district, whether acute or chronic cases.

SECT. 6. Provides for the manner of sending the insane to the asylums. Female patients to be accompanied by female attendants, etc.

SECT. 7. States that, after sufficient accommodations shall have been provided in State institutions for all the pauper and indigent insane of all the counties of the State, no charge shall be made to any county, after the first of October next ensuing, for the care, treatment, maintenance, or clothing of their pauper and indigent insane, acute or chronic, nor for the travelling expenses incurred in taking insane patients to State asylums, but that the cost of the same shall be paid by the State. Until such accommodations are provided, the patients shall continue to be a charge to the counties.

SECTS. 8 and 9. Provide for transferring patients from one asylum to another in cases of overcrowding; also, to allow patients, at the request of their friends, to be sent to a State asylum not of the district (or State Homœopathic Asylum).

SECT. 10. Authorizes the State Commission in Lunacy, when necessary and expedient, to prevent overcrowding, to recommend the erection of additional buildings.

SECT. 11. Asserts, as the intent and meaning of the act, that, when accommodations for the pauper and indigent insane of all the counties shall have been provided by the State, no dependent insane person shall be permitted to remain under county care, but that all shall be cared for in State asylums, there to be regarded and known as wards of the State, and to be wholly supported by the State.

SECT. 12. Requires the State Commission in Lunacy to furnish the Comptroller, and the Comptroller to report to the legislature, estimates of probable expenses for accommodations for each year; and requires the managers of State asylums likewise to furnish the Comptroller with estimates for maintenance for each year.

SECT. 13. Exempts New York, Kings, and Monroe Counties from the provisions of the act.

SECT. 14. Enables New York, Kings, and Monroe Counties to come under the provisions of the act whenever they may desire to do so.

SECT. 15. Defines the word "insane."

SECT. 16. Revokes exemptions of counties and prohibits further exemptions.

SECT. 17. Forbids the return of patients from State asylums to county officers.

SECT. 18. States that power of Supreme Court over persons and property of the insane shall not be restrained nor abridged by provisions of act.

SECTS. 19, 20, and 21. Provide for reasonable expenses of Board; for the repeal of acts inconsistent with this act; for giving this act immediate effect.

VI.

The Care of the Feeble-minded.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON CUSTODIAL CARE OF ADULT IDIOTS.

BY WILLIAM B. FISH, M.D., CHAIRMAN, LINCOLN, ILL.

The custodial care of adult idiots is a problem which has heretofore attracted far less attention than its importance deserves. The records of your past Conferences show earnest sympathy, sound judgment, and noble work on behalf of the feeble-minded or educable class of defectives. Incidentally, the care of custodial cases of idiocy has been discussed; but no session has heretofore been devoted to the special class mentioned.

In the eloquent address of our President delivered last Wednesday evening, he passed in review the great army of defectives and delinquents to whose uplifting your Conferences are dedicated.

First, the insane, nearly ninety-two thousand strong.

Second, the idiotic, nearly seventy-seven thousand in number.

Let us go a step farther, and, taking these two great divisions in the van of this vast army, ascertain what the Christian charity of the nineteenth century has accomplished in the way of provision and care.

We find in hospitals for insane 40,942 patients receiving the care and attention their sad condition requires. All honor to the noble men and women who have aided in this great work, and who are determined that the time shall soon come when the remaining fifty thousand shall receive similar humane attention!

Turn we now to the disposition of the second division of this vast assemblage, the idiotic, and what do we find? In training schools or institutions for feeble-minded occupying nearly the same relation to the idiotic as the hospital does to the insane, how many? Twenty thousand? No. Ten thousand? No; but the insignificant number of 2,662. Further, we find in insane asylums (entirely out of

place, and a disturbing element) 1,141; in almshouses, 5,837; in benevolent institutions, 241; in jails, 47. Totally unprovided for, in private care, or at home, 67,200.

My friends, have we ever thoroughly realized how much there is to do in this field? Have we ever considered the suffering and the wretchedness represented by these figures? Have we ever even had forcibly brought to our attention how little has been done for these, our brothers, created in the image of God, brought into the world through no fault of their own, helpless sufferers, God's innocents, too often the butt of cheap wit, whose very name is considered a reproach?

At the outset, let us clearly define what we mean by custodial care of idiocy.

At the Conference of Charities held at Buffalo in 1888 the following statements were made in the Report of the Committee on the Care and Training of the Feeble-minded: —

The experience of the past thirty years proves that of the feeble-minded who are received and trained in institutions ten to twenty per cent. are so improved as to be able to enter life as bread-winners; that from thirty to forty per cent. are returned to their families so improved as to be self-helpful, or at least much less burdensome to their people; and further, and of greater importance, that one-half the whole number will need custodial care so long as they live.

It is also shown that the large number requiring custodial care during life are divided into two groups: —

First, those who by reason of physical infirmities, such as epilepsy and paralysis, associated with profound idiocy, are so dependent as to need the same protection as we administer to infancy.

Second, those who possess excellent physical powers and are trained to a high degree of elementary capacity, but are yet so lacking in judgment and in the moral sense as to be unsafe members of the community, and, if discharged into it, contribute largely to the criminal classes, or, falling victims to the depraved, are adding to the bulk of sexual offence and to the census of incompetency.

Now, if the experience of institutions for feeble-minded shows that fifty per cent. of their inmates are, or eventually become, custodial cases of idiocy, it is perhaps fair to assume that those outside of institutions are in the same condition. Hence we think that according to the figures of the Tenth Census, there are at least over thirty-eight thousand custodial cases of idiocy in the United States.

It is further stated in the Tenth Census that over thirty-nine thousand of the total number of idiotic in the United States are between the ages of twenty-one and sixty.

The above figures are approximate. They will doubtless be augmented when the Census of 1890 is complete.

Now, one word as to the number of idiots in prisons and reformatories. I have no doubt that careful examination would show that the figures given are misleading, and that over one thousand idiots or imbeciles would be found incarcerated in prisons and jails in our country. If my memory serves me right, I think some twenty-six imbeciles and epileptics were reported in the Southern Penitentiary at Chester in my own State of Illinois in 1886.

There are doubtless members of this Conference who have read the very interesting Report of Dr. H. D. Wey, Physician of the Elmira Reformatory in New York, published in 1887. In the photographs of his class in physical culture, types of adult idiots are clearly discernible.

Now, as we are confronted with the problem of the care of this vast army of adult idiots, let us see what has been done in the past to improve their condition.

The early pioneers in the work of caring for the feeble-minded and idiotic most wisely commenced with the training school. They were educators. Their faith, their hope, and zeal were unbounded. If, as our worthy President has said, the pioneers in the Conference of Charities were saints, I know that he would agree to canonize Edouard Seguin, the "Apostle of the Idiot"; Hervey B. Wilbur, the founder of the first American school; Richards, Howe, Parrish, Knight, and others long since gone to their reward.

There remain to us Brown, Kerlin, Doren, C. T. Wilbur, and Stewart, who have struggled amid discouragements and doubts, and carried forward the work of the magnificent institutions for feeble-minded now existing in our older States. It is not necessary for me to mention in this Report the story of their trials and triumphs. This is a matter of history. The training school was then the centre from which has developed the custodial department, the epileptic hospital, the workshop, and the farm colony.

In 1880 Dr. H. B. Wilbur, most efficiently aided by Mrs. Lowell, a member of the New York State Board of Charities (foremost in all good works), took steps to establish the Newark (N.Y.) Custodial Institution for Feeble-minded Women. In 1884 Dr. I. N. Kerlin, in

an able Report made to the Eleventh Annual Conference at St. Louis, outlined the Asylum Village, with the Central School Department, Custodial Departments for each sex, Epileptic Hospital, and departments for Industrial Training.

With Dr. Kerlin, faith and works have gone hand in hand, and the custodial care of adult idiots is perhaps more completely organized in the Pennsylvania institution than in any of our American institutions for feeble-minded.

In 1886, at the Conference at St. Paul, Minn., Dr. George H. Knight, now in charge of the Institution at Lakeville, Conn., made a most logical and convincing plea for further provision for epileptics in connection with training schools for feeble-minded.

Dr. F. M. Powell in 1887 and Dr. A. C. Rodgers in 1888 contributed papers at the Conferences held at Omaha and Buffalo, ably substantiating the position taken by Dr. Kerlin in 1884 at St. Louis; namely, that custodial cases of idiocy could be best cared for in connection with a school for feeble-minded, and under the same management.

In the institutions for feeble-minded in Pennsylvania, Minnesota, Ohio, Iowa, California, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Illinois, provision exists for custodial cases of idiocy. It is possible that in other States the same provision is made.

I must not omit the magnificent institution at Orillia, in the Province of Ontario, Canada, which, through the indefatigable efforts of Dr. Beaton, the Superintendent, and the late Dr. O'Reilly, Inspector-General of Charities and Correction, has erected buildings for both school training and custodial care which will compare favorably with any institution of a similar character in our country.

I think I may safely say that those actively engaged in the care and training of the feeble-minded and idiotic in this country are unanimously agreed as to the expediency of providing for adult cases of idiocy in connection with training schools for the feeble-minded.

It is true that the Newark (N.Y.) Custodial Institution for Feeble-minded Women has a separate and independent existence, and is no longer under control of the parent institution at Syracuse. There are some circumstances connected with the establishment of this institution which may perhaps account for its separate existence. The parent institution at Syracuse, one of the oldest American institutions for idiots, was located upon ground which in the course of

time has become very valuable. When Dr. H. B. Wilbur established the Newark branch, I presume it was not considered expedient by him to purchase lands near the parent institution on account of the great expense. I learn by report that the building selected in Newark was erected for a theological seminary. Now, from what we know of our friends in the interior of New York State, there was no necessity for such an institution, and consequently it lapsed into a condition of "innocuous desuetude."

Thwarted in their benevolent impulses in the domain of theological improvement, doubtless the owners of the building became active in the cause of practical Christianity, and tendered the structure to the parent institution at Syracuse at a very reasonable figure. Hence I judge that the wide separation between the two departments was solely due to matters of economy. I do not believe that our lamented friend, Dr. Wilbur, were he now living, or his successors, Doctors Doren and Carson, would advocate the separate custodial institution.

It has not been my privilege to visit the Newark institution, but from reports received I have no doubt as to the able and efficient management by Mr. and Mrs. Willet, who are in charge. I do not wish to be considered as reflecting in the slightest degree upon the founders, managers, or present trustees of this Newark Custodial Institution for Feeble-minded Women. It is doubtless doing good work; but I think that in the light of past experience there would be many advantages obtained both by its inmates and management by association with the parent school at Syracuse, were it so located as to form a special department within easy supervision of the parent institution.

Now, in all fairness and candor, I wish to ask, What advantage is there to the inmates, to the community, to the tax-payers, in the establishment of a separate custodial institution under independent management? We who are in charge of institutions for feeble-minded do not pretend to embrace all the wisdom and knowledge existing on the subject. We present to you, intelligent and thinking men and women, from our experience, what seems to us the best method of dealing with this class of defectives. If our experience and recommendations seem to you to be practical and judicious, we want your hearty co-operation and sympathy; we want your influence in your respective communities; we want you to labor with us in the establishment in your respective States of institutions for the feeble-minded,

starting with the training school as a nucleus, with provision in your acts of incorporation for the development of the custodial, epileptic, industrial, and farm departments. Experience in the past instructs us to lay our foundations broad and deep for new institutions. Let there be intelligent appreciation of the scope of this work, of its magnitude.

One of your honored Presidents some years ago advocated first the establishment of the custodial department in his State, so that the wretchedness of the custodial cases of idiocy in the almshouses could be speedily alleviated. While sympathizing with him in his charitable impulse, we could not coincide with his views.

Institutions for the feeble-minded in their early history have a struggle for existence. It has to be demonstrated to a sceptical public that the "Fool Schools" (as they have been termed by statesmen who know nothing of them) are of any benefit either to the community or the inmates. It is first necessary to prove that the feeble-minded are susceptible of improvement; and has not this been most grandly demonstrated in the early history of all of our institutions? Gradually, the sceptics have become warm and enthusiastic friends; and the future growth of the institution on broad lines, embracing all classes, with the motto, "Charity should be as broad as misfortune," has been assured.

True charity considers first the comfort and happiness of its beneficiaries. The tax-payers demand rigid economy in charitable expenditure. The great heart of the people takes the middle ground, and says: "Take care of our afflicted people, let them not suffer, make them comfortable and happy, but do not waste the people's money. Be economical, but not niggardly."

Your committee believes that the colony plan for the care of the idiotic meets the requirements of all. We believe in giving every feeble-minded child such training and instruction as it is capable of receiving in the training school. We believe that industrial training should go hand in hand with school work. We believe that separate buildings should be erected under the same management for the care of custodial cases of both sexes. We believe that epileptics and paralytics should not, on account of their physical infirmity, be debarred from the social life and amusement of the training school.

We believe that adult cases of idiocy, those possessing brawn and muscle, can, in the custodial building, the laundry, the workshop, and the farmer colonies, be made useful to the State, useful to the

more helpless to whom they can render competent direction and care; useful on the farm, in reducing the cost to the State for maintenance, and preparing themselves possibly for farm laborers who can in time leave the guardianship of the institution and become producers instead of hopeless consumers.

Let us quote again from Dr. Kerlin's paper presented to this Conference at St. Louis in 1884: —

American institutions for the feeble-minded having already been in existence thirty years, it may be asserted that the experimental period has passed, and that, when States shall proceed to legislate for their defectives, it will be done on a permanent basis.

The grades of specific idiocy and imbecility presuppose a wide classification, and at the commencement this should be planned for somewhat as follows: —

First, central buildings for the school and industrial departments. Near at hand should be located the shops.

Second, separate buildings for the care of cases of paralysis and profound idiocy, with such special arrangement of dormitory and day-rooms as the infirm character of the inmates may require.

Third, other remote buildings for the custodial and epileptic departments, with accessories for both care and training.

Fourth, provisions should eventually be made for colonizing lads as they grow into manhood in properly arranged houses as farmers, gardeners, dairy help, etc.

In the discussion following Dr. Kerlin's paper Dr. G. A. Doren, the Superintendent of the Institution for Imbeciles at Columbus, Ohio, the largest and best equipped institution, I believe, in the world, is reported as follows: —

We have always labored most heartily upon the plan outlined in the paper we have heard, wherein it advocates that all classes should be provided for. I would say that I regard it as extremely unwise to establish an institution for custody simply.

It may be said that all these expressions of opinion are from superintendents who desire to build up large institutions, and there is given us no expression of opinion from the standpoint of an intelligent layman. Let me quote from the Report of Professor Albert Salisbury, of Wisconsin, to the Association of Wisconsin Teachers at their meeting Dec. 27, 1890: —

Should the Institution for the Feeble-minded be primarily a school or an asylum? No body like this would long hesitate in favor of the school idea. This judgment would be in clear accord with the idea

which governed Drs. Seguin and Wilbur, and all the great leaders in the movement in behalf of the feeble-minded. But the course of experience seems to show conclusively that the two ends cannot long be kept separate. Both functions are proper and necessary. The unimprovable cases of idiocy need intelligent custody to the same extent and for much the same reason as the chronic insane. The great majority of all grades should first be committed to the care and ameliorating influences of the special school. If the school and the custodial department exist side by side under the same management, the transfer of inmates, complete or partial, final or temporary, can be effected with the least difficulty; and even that minority of cases who are not subjects for educational effort are, nevertheless, susceptible of the habit-forming processes and require expert supervision. The State institution should be inaugurated as a school, with legal sanction and provision for the natural and inevitable growth of the custodial feature.

This represents the intelligent observation and thought of a trained educator, who personally gave his time to a conscientious study of this problem.

One word as to the adaptability of adult custodial cases of idiocy to farm training, and I will conclude. I trust I may be pardoned for alluding to our experience in the institution at Lincoln, Ill., which is my charge. We have for the past three years leased a farm of four hundred acres, about a mile from the main institution. Upon this farm is a colony of some twenty boys who are permanently located at the farm. The paid employees are a farmer at fifty dollars per month, a milkman at twenty dollars per month, and a maid of all work at twelve dollars. No special appropriation has ever been asked from the State for the purpose of working out this farm experiment. By rigid economy and the utilization of waste material of the main institution, barns, cow-sheds, and quarters for the boys have been constructed. We now have a herd of eighty Holstein cows, a complete set of farm implements, and all the machinery necessary to carry on the farm. In addition to his other duties, our farmer purchases all the beef cattle required by the institution and slaughters them. In 1890 we annexed one hundred acres more, making five hundred acres in all. Dec. 31, 1890, the account with the farm for three years of its occupancy showed a balance to its credit of $5,848.47, or an annual credit of nearly eighteen dollars per annum above all expenses, including rent, wages, food, and six per cent. interest on the plant. We cannot expect to send out into the world from our institutions for the feeble-minded professional men,

clerks, or skilled artisans ; but we can in many instances train farm laborers and domestics, and relieve the State from a life-long guardianship, make producers instead of hopeless consumers, and inculcate habits of industry in our wards.

Let us briefly summarize this Report.

First, the magnitude of the work to be done for custodial cases of idiocy.

Second, the almost universal expression of opinion on the part of those actively engaged in the work in favor of the colony plan of organization,— with the training school as a centre, with industrial, custodial, and farm departments under our supervision.

Third, the advantages to our charges of association under one management.

It is to me most gratifying that this enlightened and intelligent assembly, who unselfishly give their time and money to the consideration of the serious questions involved in humanitarian and charitable work, have devoted so much of the valuable time of this Conference to the unfortunates referred to in this imperfect Report. My friends, have you ever considered the possibility of the affliction as you gaze at the dear ones in your own families, have you ever thought of the thousands of weary mothers who are wasting their lives in the care of their afflicted progeny, neglecting, perhaps, those who need their care, and, mother-like, devoting themselves to the stricken one? God grant that this cup may pass from you, and that in future years you may be inspired to labor for the heretofore neglected idiot!

He calls for your deepest, most unselfish charity. In my intercourse with the afflicted class I have been taught lessons of faith, of hope, of love; and, my friends, you will find, as you strive for the elevation of these, our most afflicted brothers, the reward mentioned in the words of our Master, which can never grow old or pall upon our ears : —

" Inasmuch as ye have done it unto these, the least of my brethren, ye have done it unto me."

COLONY CARE FOR ADULT IDIOTS.

BY GEORGE H. KNIGHT, M.D., LAKEVILLE, CONN.

So far in the history of the work in America, I might say in the world, there has been so much that was repugnant to outsiders in the words "feeble-minded," "imbecile," "idiot," and we have had such a hard struggle in many ways to get even a hearing for necessary things, that we have had no time to try to make this a popular charity. But repelling as the work is, and must always in a measure remain to those outside of it, the time has come for taking wise and decisive measures to secure the greatest possible good to the greatest possible number of these unfortunate members of society.

From our present standpoint, the plan so clearly outlined in Dr. Fish's paper seems to give the brightest look ahead in our work, and for the reasons which he has so ably set forth. Two of these I would like to emphasize: First, as bringing the greatest amount of well-being and happiness to our charges. We know from practical experience that adult imbeciles, when they are equal to the responsibilities of such a trust, make good care-takers of the smaller children, and even of the adult custodial cases,— always, of course, under proper supervision,— and that the mental and moral results of such confidence placed in them are incalculable. Every one who has had experience in the care of children knows that a busy child is generally a happy one. Every advocate of manual training believes that a busy child is a better child in every sense. It must be a self-evident fact that the very thing that helps a bright child cannot fail to help a dull one, too. And just here let me add that an imbecile of any grade is always in effect a child. Then there are the beneficial results that follow from contact of the different grades. Many of us here in this Conference can testify to the help we get from meeting those who are brighter than ourselves; and this same influence, even if it be in a far lesser degree, is felt in the mixing together of the different grades in an institution for the feeble-minded. Second, the plan of colonization is more economical. This has been proved by the experience of some of our older institutions. In the Pennsylvania institution, presided over by Dr. Kerlin, where very careful accounts and reports are kept in regard to this matter, it is estimated that the work done by the imbeciles represents a saving of over $20,000 per annum; while Dr.

Doren, of Ohio, has offered, if the State would give him 1,000 acres of land, to take care of all their custodial cases free of further expense.

But to my mind the economical side of this question is the least valuable. What we are striving for is the best, most successful, and, above all, the most humane methods of caring for all these dependants. We do not want the easiest way nor the cheapest way; but we do want the way that will make those children happy, which will lift this heaviest of burdens from unfortunate homes, which will make life-long custody sure, and thus prevent intermarriage, with all its terrible possibilities. We do not feel, as superintendents, that we have yet found all there is to know by any means. If any one can suggest better methods than are now in use, we are ready and glad to accept them. We are anxious to lay our foundations so broad and true and far-reaching that this most necessary charity will commend itself to every State in the Union.

In listening to the papers and discussions on the comparative merits of institutions and homes for the wards of the State, I could not but be impressed with the tremendous difference which must always exist in the methods of caring for children of limited intelligence as opposed to those of full intelligence. We find that nothing so disorders a home as the presence in it of an imbecile child. Small, indeed, is the number that would entertain for one moment the proposal to adopt one such. We find that we must congregate them to get our best results. It is only from a large number that we can select enough of any one grade to make a group or class. More than one argument has been made here against placing a child in a family where there are no other children. In order to have companionship, that most necessary thing in the education of all children, we must have large numbers from which to make up our small classes of those who are of an equal degree of intelligence.

An institution is a small world of itself. Over against its walls for every grade is written, "Eternal vigilance is the price of safety." Inside those walls we have no imbeciles, no idiots, no fools. They are always in our thoughts and speech, in every condition and age, simply "the children"; and the best we have and can do is none too good for them.

VII.

Charity Organization.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON THE ORGANIZATION OF CHARITIES.

BY HANNAH M. TODD, CHAIRMAN.

Charity Organization was introduced into this country fourteen years ago, in Buffalo, N.Y. Students of social questions recognized a serious danger in the rapidly increasing class of dependants. The methods of relief in use served to increase rather than to mitigate the evil. The old idea of charity was a literal application of the injunction, "Give to him that asketh." By the introduction of system in charity, a broader interpretation has been given, and there has been an awakening to the knowledge that alms are impotent to restore weakened human energy, that we have a higher duty to our fellow-beings. A recognition of the brotherhood of man has been carried into the work of charity. Under the old system there was no unity of action by societies or individuals. With such methods it was impossible to secure permanent improvement. Great loss of energy ensued from lack of information and friction. The results were too often overlapping,— indiscriminate giving or inadequate relief, causing thriftlessness and increased dependence.

The need did not seem to be increased relief, but the wise and effective administration of the relief already available.

The great demand was organization. This is the object of organized charities,— to bring the various societies into cordial co-operation, to furnish a central bureau of information concerning the work of each, and to keep a registry of the needs and condition of every applicant for relief,— this information to be confidential, and disclosed only to those whose interest in the family warrants such disclosure. The constant aim must be permanent improvement of the individual and amelioration of conditions. These can never be accomplished by mere relief-giving, but require a steady, patient uplift.

Scope of Work.

The methods and principles of Charity Organization have now extended to eighty-two cities in the United States. Since the last Conference five societies have been organized,—in Hartford, Conn.; Worcester and Newton, Mass.; Rochester, N.Y.; and Lincoln, Neb.; while the societies in Poughkeepsie, N.Y., and Harrisburg, Penn., reported as having suspended last year, are now in good working condition. In St. Joseph, Mo., Quincy, Ill., and Sandusky, Ohio, the work has been discontinued. The more fruitful field of Charity Organization is in large cities, for the evident reason that there are more charitable societies to organize, and the need of registration is more imperative. The multiplication of sources of relief without an organized system of registration and information is a direct encouragement to shiftlessness, thriftlessness, and vice. This registry is a clearing-house, and becomes to charitable societies and individuals what the mercantile agency is to business. In smaller cities the danger of overlapping is much less, and the detection of fraud more certain, therefore the need of organization is not so readily acknowledged; but it is in the small cities that the best results from preventive work should be secured. While the principles and objects of Charity Organization are everywhere the same, the methods and scope of the work vary according to the needs of the locality. In some cities it is possible for the new charity to devote itself to the special field of registration, promotion of co-operation, and educational work along the lines of scientific charity by means of public meetings and publications, while in other cities the society must devote a part of its time and energy to devising means of filling in the gap of relief, must organize or promote training schools, day nurseries, and other means of helping the poor to help themselves, according to the special needs of the place.

Statistics.

In accordance with the custom of previous years, the Committee on the Organization of Charities issued a blank form for statistics as to the increase of co-operation, number of cases dealt with during the year, and some of the chief causes of need. These forms were sent to the eighty-two societies reported as working on the principle of co-operation in charity. Forty-eight have responded through the

blank form, and fourteen others by correspondence, so that we have knowledge of sixty-two of the eighty-two societies.

Of the societies reporting on blank forms, many were unable to answer all the questions, as they do not keep records by which such statistics can be tabulated. The societies responding to the questions asked in form represent cities with an aggregate population of 7,085,361, and report that they have dealt with 32,740 families. It was hoped that we might give from these statistics an estimate of the proportion of the population who were applicants for partial support; but the number of cases dealt with is not reported by all, and from some cities we get only a report of new families, so that for comparison the figures have not much value. In regard to giving relief, thirteen societies report that they are the almoners of charity, giving aid from their own fund (ten giving aid in emergencies only), and eighteen are entirely non-relief-giving. There is a very satisfactory showing in regard to co-operation, nearly all societies reporting increased co-operation with churches, societies, overseers of the poor, individuals, and institutions. This would seem to indicate growth and permanence. In many cities a large number of families are referred by individuals, showing that a steadily increasing number of families are brought to the notice of the Charity Organization Society by personal interest, many of them when they first fall into need. By this means adequate relief may be secured, or the need overcome without the intervention of material aid. By this increase of individual co-operation, a knowledge of the methods of the society is spread, through the information sent those interested, regarding the family they have referred. The work of Charity Organization is not limited by degree of poverty or kind of need. It deals with all classes, from defectives and paupers to those needing temporary relief.

While poverty is to be deplored, pauperism is to be condemned. It is the result of heredity and environment, and is fostered by public official relief and indiscriminate almsgiving; but, whether caused by hereditary tendencies or the result of a process of demoralization, a lack of character and moral force is involved. Therefore the development of character must be the object sought in the treatment of this pauper class. Private charity should aim to prevent the increase of pauperism by helping those in need into a position of self-support, and by stimulating self-respect, independence, and moral force. Experience has proven the futility of almsgiving to cure poverty or pauperism. It is simply temporizing with a serious evil to trust to that alone.

Conferences.

The conference is intended to bring together district committees, friendly visitors, and workers in the various charitable and relief agencies, for the purpose of considering the needs of special families and to decide on the best and wisest course to pursue, advise workers, when advice is required, and to take a general outlook of the field of charitable work. By this plan all available information is brought to the consideration of the questions involved, and an educational work is carried on. The conference does not dictate, but advises. General principles of action are adopted, but each family is considered as a unit. Without the aid of the conference in some form, there is danger of decisions and treatment being left to the judgment of an individual officer, and thus the spirit of Charity Organization, which is co-operation, would be set aside. Conferences have been established by thirty societies, and each report the plan as being of great importance; but, even where it is considered of the utmost importance, the degree of success varies. In some cities it has been impossible to organize the conference, as the workers could not be made to feel the necessity. Fourteen societies report that they have no organized conference, the consideration and decision in regard to families being left to the executive or some special committee.

The chief value of conference work is educational. The New York society reports: "Have conference meetings only occasionally. Consider them of prime importance, but very difficult to maintain as a regular system in this rushing community." From New Haven, Conn., we have word that "the conference is valuable in disposition of difficult cases and for mutual help, and its success has been very satisfactory." Baltimore Charity Organization Society says, "Upon the improvement and more thorough organization of the conference depends our future usefulness"; and from Syracuse, N.Y., comes the verdict, "Upon the success of the conference depends the success of the society." Thus we find, from the various reports, an almost unanimous recognition of the importance of this branch of the work.

Friendly Visiting.

In dealing with human relations, it is not possible to have hard-and-fast lines. General principles can be laid down for our guidance and direction, but for the improvement of the individual rules must

be flexible, and the methods employed adapted to the individual condition. It is in this relation that the importance and value of the friendly visitor are found; it is through this personal relation that the needy may be raised to self-help, the discouraged given hope and imbued with new energy, and the tone of the family raised. Thirty-seven societies report a corps of friendly visitors. In fifteen cities the number is equal to the needs of the work; while in twenty-two the supply is wholly inadequate, as we may judge from the fact that, with an aggregate of 32,740 families treated in 46 cities, there were but 3,105 visitors, or 1 to every 10.5 cases, so that many must have gone without continued visiting. The outlook for an increase in this important service to the poor is not altogether encouraging, as but eighteen societies report an increasing supply of visitors, while fifteen societies report the number as stationary, and two as diminishing. It may not as yet be possible to secure a visitor for every family in need, but there should at least be one for each of the most improvable. In a large number of cases, the first need is relief, and the necessary aid must be supplied; but does true charity stop there? Is it not self-evident that there is some cause for the family being reduced to need? Have we performed our full duty to the family by simply supplying material relief? Has the furnishing of coal, food, or fuel, insured them against further need? Has it elevated the moral tone of the family or taught them thrift? Not at all: we must go further than this.

> "More than they asked he gave, and deemed it mean
> Only to help the poor to beg again."

Is not this the essence of friendly visiting,—the gift of sympathy, advice? Personal interest is greater than material relief; and the wise friend sees that relief, if given, is adequate, and the need to beg again obviated by watchfulness and oversight.

The heart of friendly visiting is in the sustained friendly relation. It does not mean a spasmodic interest in a family, which ceases when the distress of the family is overcome or they are in a position of self-support, but the establishment of a permanent friendship. The visitor should earn the right to call the family he visits his friends, and, after winning their confidence and friendship, should consider it sacred and respect it, as he does friendships formed in other relations of life.

Causes of Poverty.

The increasing interest in social problems, the wide-spread consideration and discussion of social questions, give fresh interest and importance to the work of Charity Organization. The basic principles of Charity Organization are investigation, registration, co-operation, and friendly visiting. By investigation is meant not simply ascertaining the condition and needs of a family, but ascertaining the causes which have led to the present need, the capacity of the various members of the family, as well as their habits and general character. Scientific charity bases the treatment of the case on the facts revealed by such investigation, as a physician treats his patient according to the conditions shown by a diagnosis. In either case, heroic treatment may be required; but, if the permanent good of the individual is the object, the remedy should be conscientiously administered.

By registration the results of the investigation are kept in permanent form, and information received from time to time is added, showing changes of condition and effect of methods employed. By this means the information is available, when needed. We have no report of the number of societies which keep such a registry of cases, but the number answering the questions asked by your committee indicates that it is kept by a small per cent. While statistics as to causes of poverty are difficult to compile, they are a most important feature of our work in its relation to social problems; and workers in these societies have unusual facilities for tabulating such statistics, as they have not only the result of investigation, but the knowledge of the habits of a family gained by the friendly visiting. The information thus available should be tabulated, not only for the benefit of the social student, but in the interest of the poor themselves. A knowledge of the causes which have resulted in present conditions will prove an important factor in the development of a new social and industrial order. There is a gain over last year in the number of societies reporting statistics as to causes of need, but the reports received have not been sufficiently full to warrant their use. According to reports received, the predominating causes of poverty are lack of employment and insufficient earnings, intemperance or other forms of vice, and shiftlessness or inefficiency. In many cases, these causes are so interrelated that it is difficult to define the limit of each. In many cases, these conditions are the result

of our social and industrial system. By our present industrial system men are brought into competition with each other, and even with their children, for whose labor a bid is made to reduce the cost of manufacture. Of course, the reports presented deal only with those who have come to want, and whose wants have been made known. How many are living on the verge of dependence, and in constant danger of falling into need by loss of employment, sickness, or any misfortune which reduces the income or increases expense of living!

Broadly speaking, then, the chief causes of poverty are vice and shiftlessness,— internal conditions relating to individual character,— and lack of employment or insufficient earnings, caused largely by external or social and industrial conditions. Sickness, which is given by many as the chief cause of need in a large number of cases, is often the result of poverty. Shiftlessness and inefficiency often cause unhealthy conditions in the home, which are detrimental to health. An unsanitary condition is as apt to spring from the carelessness of the family as from lack of sanitation in the surroundings; but, whether sickness is the cause or result of poverty, the home is the safeguard of our social existence, and great care must be taken to preserve healthful conditions.

Everything seems tending to a new social order; but, whatever conditions may be evolved, whatever the new order may prove to be, the character of the men and women, the moral, mental, and physical stamina of the people, will form the chief factor in its success. When this new order will come, whether in our generation or in the future, makes no difference with our present duty. We cannot wait for its coming, but must exert our influence in shaping its features. While we may have hope of a grander future for society, we must bravely meet conditions as they exist now, to-day.

Public and Private Charities.

To successfully wage war against poverty, vice, and crime, there must be unity of action, not only among charitable societies, but with public official relief. The one should supplement the other. In most States there is a well-defined plan of caring for defectives, paupers, and criminals. These three classes come under official supervision and control, and the State alone has power to restrain or coerce. Private charities should aid the State in the accomplishment of its purpose, not by interference, but by preventing individuals from falling into these classes.

Charity Organization recognizes that for every effect there is a cause; and it aims to search out that cause, and with strong, steadfast purpose strive to effect a cure. To reduce poverty and pauperism is the purpose of Charity Organization, but it is a slow process. The general public have to be educated in the scientific principles of social ethics; and the dependants have to be, one by one, trained to self-help. And, while this slow process of energizing is going on, the stream of devitalized human beings, pauperized by the system of their own country and ignorant of the laws and customs of ours, is constantly swelling and spreading its diseased condition over the land.

Gains of the Year.

The most notable advance in Charity Organization during the year is the recent passage of an act of Congress by which a new office has been created,— that of Superintendent of Charities for the District of Columbia. The law provides that the Superintendent shall formulate such a plan of co-operation or consolidation of the charities, societies, and institutions of the District, for which appropriations are made by Congress, as shall secure the best results. He is to inquire into the efficiency and character of such societies, and report to Congress through the Commissioner of the District, recommending such changes or modification as he deems necessary. The need for such public service in Washington seems to be due to the fact that the charitable institutions of the District of Columbia, some forty or fifty in number, are the recipients to a greater or less extent of grants of public money.

By the creation of this office, and the appointment by the President of a superintendent having practical experience in Charity Organization work, the principles of co-operation in charity have received the indorsement of the highest authority of our national government. Professor Amos G. Warner, the first incumbent of the office, won distinction as a student of sociology at Johns Hopkins University and by his writings on social questions. His practical knowledge in this particular field of work was acquired as General Secretary of the Charity Organization Society of Baltimore. Professor Warner leaves a professorship in the Nebraska University to accept this new office.

This action by Congress will undoubtedly give fresh impetus to the work of Charity Organization all over the country; and it is hoped

that it may lead to an awakening on the subject, and thaias a resutl many more cities will report their charities as organized at the next National Conference in 1892.

For several years the principal charitable societies of Boston have had their general offices under one roof, in a building known as the Charity Building. The plan has been conducive to co-operation, and has secured better results than is possible where the societies are scattered over the city. It is a charitable centre, which is known to the needy as well as the philanthropist; and applicants for relief can be referred to this centre with the assurance that prompt service can be rendered to need of every kind. In New York the importance of concentrating the benevolent work of the city has been felt for a long time, and several years ago the Charity Organization Society agitated the subject. By the recent munificent gift of John S. Kennedy, the desired object is to be attained. Mr. Kennedy has informed four of the principal charitable societies of that city of his intention to erect a "United Charities Building" on Fourth Avenue and Twenty-second Street, and to give each of these societies a beneficial interest in the same. The building is intended to contain the general offices of the Charity Organization Society, the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, the Children's Aid Society, the New York City Mission and Tract Society, and such other charitable societies as may desire to secure quarters at a moderate rental. This plan will undoubtedly result in the greater efficiency of each, and by the increased co-operation which will be secured the practical overcoming of duplication in effort and relief will be brought about.

In Cleveland a new building has been erected for the use of the Associated Charities, at a cost of about $23,000. New Haven, Conn., reports that "sufficient funds have been contributed to assure the erection of a Charity Building," to cost about $30,000.

In Lynn, Mass., the importance of the various charities being in closer communication has been agitated, and a committee representing the principal charities has been appointed to take steps toward securing suitable accommodations for these various societies, so that they may have their general offices under one roof.

The influence of Charity Organization is constantly extending. In nearly all soil where the seed has been sown, root has been taken, and permanency established.

One great disadvantage to Charity Organization is the fact that the

work is carried on under so many different cognomens that the great public does not recognize the same principles under these various names, and the solidity which eighty-two societies should present is not recognized or felt. It seems of great importance that some system of co-operation and exchange of information among Charity Organization and kindred societies should be inaugurated. for there is a sense of isolation among the smaller societies.

THE RELATION OF CHARITY ORGANIZATION TO SOCIAL PROBLEMS.

BY GEORGE D. HOLT, MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

In order to understand the relation of Charity Organization to social problems, it will be necessary to define briefly, for the purpose of this paper, the meaning of the term "Charity Organization."

To the experienced charitable worker it means intelligent charity; and, because intelligent, effective, not for the present alone, but for the permanent welfare of the recipient, never sacrificing the lesser for the greater nor the latter for the former. The latter consideration should actuate every movement made, every reform encouraged.

Intelligence born of experience and observation should be the foundation upon which the whole structure should rest, the centre from which all activities should emanate. The motive power in rearing the superstructure should be the love of humanity for humanity's sake, and its cheering and powerful influences should permeate every part from base to topmost pinnacle.

Charity Organization collects facts and tests the truth of the old adage, "Facts are stubborn things." It treats men as individuals, and not as classes. Its advocates believe that for every effect there is an adequate cause; that the laws of nature are no less binding than those of revelation; that, without combination of the charitable agencies and societies of a given community and the subordination of private interests to the public good, it will be impossible to obtain the required facts and the necessary action to prevent the good impulses of the prosperous from building up and encouraging professional imposition, beggary, and fraud by the chronically shiftless and improvidently disposed.

The want of this co-operation and combination of effort is, we believe, the most prolific cause of the growth of pauperism.

Charity organizers are specialists. This is an age of specialists; and that people or organization that turns a deaf ear to specialists will find itself losing ground, not keeping abreast of the times, and will soon be supplanted.

Charity Organization seeks by combination to cover the entire field or municipality in which it is located. It seeks to foster local pride in the welfare and prosperity of the whole people, seeing that no gaps between the charities, churches, or people exist that will leave any poor, degraded, or unfortunate person, however low he may have fallen, without friendly counsel and the needed relief a thorough knowledge of the case and wise counsel may dictate.

With perfect confidence and co-operation on the part of the various and multiform charities, churches, and public-spirited citizens, this central agency will be in a position to point out the field, the needed work, and the methods to pursue, or the "how to do it." All agencies seeking to elevate and Christianize the people will find it greatly to their advantage to consult its records and consider its recommendations before adopting a course of action with reference to a person or family unknown to them.

This method of procedure will not in the least degree prejudice the highest interests of successful church work, but rather increase its efficiency and broaden its character.

It is our avowed policy to enlist church workers as friendly visitors among the poor. Should the agent or friendly visitor representing the Central Organization learn of a poor family having claims upon a particular church, society, individual, or relative, it should be the duty of such agent or visitor to see that they are helped to emergency relief at once, if the exigencies of the case demand it, and then place them in the care of such church, society, individual, or relative, who will take entire charge of them. Failing in this, a permanent friendly visitor from the Central Organization should be appointed to see that the family is not neglected nor allowed to lapse into pauperism.

It is for Charity Organization to strike the note of alarm as the storm-clouds of pauperism and crime gather on the distant horizon of the apparently calm sea of a self-contentment born of wealth, success, and selfishness. It is also its duty to be a leader in the van of human progress, encouraging all reforms and charities that exalt individual manliness and self-reliance, keeping ever in the fore-front, "Justice to all, and with malice toward none."

In this centralization of effort a vast waste of energy is prevented, and evils from overlapping and duplicate giving are greatly minimized.

In our modern civilization the volume of misapplied energy and money is enormous. The misapplied kindnesses of to-day are making paupers and criminals faster than any other agencies, not excepting insufficient employment for labor, the drink habit, or unrestricted foreign immigration. Many instances of its occurrence are constantly being met.

To many a thoughtless giver, working independently and alone with the best of motives, many families owe their complete and lasting downfall, leaving scarcely a vestige of manhood for their succeeding generations.

We will give but one instance from many known to us: —

A church society of our city, with the best motives, had been aiding a family liberally until the burden became unbearable and seemed ever to increase. Their efforts culminated in the discovery that the two able-bodied boys — men grown, out of work, whom they had been for some time generously helping — were seeking assistance to wood. It was very cold. The visitor, at considerable pains and trouble, offered them some pine lumber that was near by. The supply would have lasted the family a month, but had to be cut to be used. The mother's first inquiry of the visitor was: "Is the wood sawed and split? If not, I cannot use it." The visitor found, upon pushing her way into the house, the woman's two sons smoking cigarettes, and seated in chairs leaning against the wall, with a spittoon between them, contented as lords. They wanted given to them what would cost no labor in accepting; and, failing here, they had but to appeal to another relief agency, not in communication with the former, and their immediate physical wants were forthwith supplied.

This want of system meets with the unequivocal support of all shiftless, improvident, and professional beggars; for it is "charity without red tape and paid officers,— every dollar of it goes directly to the poor." We are pained to add that this plan is to-day by far too generally in vogue. All of this can be readily overcome by referring all unknown applicants to the Charity Organization Society for confidential investigation, reports, and recommendations, which are freely given to all known to it as charitably interested in the family.

The relation which Charity Organization or Associated Charities bears to social problems is similar to that of an index to a vast ledger of accounts; namely, a guide to each of the varied individual lives

in a metropolis,— a guide to the lost traveller at the fork of the roads or a compass to the storm-tossed mariner at sea. Such a guide or compass to both society and the individual is the result of lessons learned and imparted from the central office library, or accumulated experiences and histories of lives ill or well spent. The secretary, the paid agents, and friendly visitors are all engaged in practically applying these lessons by personal contact, precept, friendliness, and example. If the individual units that make up society are thus located, guided, helped, and controlled, we shall have a model state of society. The relation of Charity Organization to the community is, therefore, plainly one of knowledge,— knowledge of the causes that effect ruin and disaster to society. Its relation is one of helpfulness and vigilant watch and care over the poorest and the humblest as well as the richest and the most prosperous. Its mission is to give each reform its due encouragement, according to the number of lives it affects, being careful to see that all things work together for good to the greatest possible number.

"Eternal vigilance is the price of liberty," said Patrick Henry. Eternal vigilance is not only the price of liberty, but is rapidly becoming the price of existence itself; and everything that is worth having,— success, employment, honor, and a good character,— all, all, are dependent upon it. And, the sooner that this fact is realized by the individual, the sooner will the average state of society be lifted up.

An all-wise Creator has apparently ordained that each individual should be ever on the alert, seeking for more light and more truth, and eager to do his or her part. The many doors of opportunity in the extensive corridors of human life may seem to be closed, locked, bolted, and barred, when it requires often but a slight pressure, at the right time and in the right place, to reveal the fact that they are ajar.

This slight pressure is furnished by a friend fully acquainted with the helpful resources,— charitable, financial, corrective, and preventive,— that prevail and are accessible to said friend.

Another door of opportunity may require a special key. There are keys. Many, possibly all, may need to be brought into requisition before the right one is found. An expert to use it may also be required. And this specialist in Charity Organization is the Friendly Visitor.

Another door may require a combination that will require a manipulation of keys to accomplish what no separate key without the combination could accomplish. This in Charity Organization is the Con-

ference of Friendly Visitors. They furnish the combination known to us as "The Conference Decision," and apply it to families the most degraded and self-contented in their chronic laziness, intemperance, and waste. These will not work if work is offered them. Their appeal and stock in trade is constant destitution and wretchedness. To accomplish lasting good for such cases, a lifelong friendship is necessary, beginning with the children and holding on with firm grip, until at last you reach the heart-strings of some one in the family. The way will open up in striking rapidity after once the leaven has begun to work, the life of the visitor being the light that guides them to self-help, respectability, and multiplying opportunities.

Society, as such, has its duties to the individual. The individual has his duties to society. Neither can take the place of the other. Both must be performed. In other words, society owes a debt to the individual; *vice versa*, the individual to society. These debts are mutually reciprocal and interdependent. Upon the faithful payment of one depends the faithful payment of the other. And with such a state of affairs we might hope for a period of universal healthy morals and a pure religion.

Much of the charity of to-day, as commonly distributed by society and the State, only serves to lighten the just burdens of the employer and employee, and serves but to postpone the day of amicable adjustment between capital and labor. Such charity is irritating in the extreme to the receiver, and serves as a "safety-valve" to relieve the high pressure that is upon the heart and conscience of the capitalists. The only charity that is proper is that which develops true character in both the giver and receiver; and it cannot be safely administered to the individual among aggregations of people without a very comprehensive system of Charity Organization that treats men individually with reference to their health, physical condition, capability to render service, willingness to perform it, etc.

The individual in turn must find that he is an integral part of the whole, and must be compelled to render the society of which he is a member an equivalent of service for the benefit he is certain to receive and rightly entitled to.

These assurances must be reciprocal; and it is, we believe, an open question whether the powers of the government and State should not be invoked to bring about this state of affairs as largely as it may be within the province of government or State to do so, and compel for the general good the minimizing of selfishness and heartless

avarice and the maximizing of industrial education, industrial employments, making them in a measure, compulsory.

The greatest barrier to progress in this direction is the individual selfishness of both time and money which prevents society from organizing into a broad and comprehensive organization, calculated to accomplish these results.

The individual seems to be in a mad race of competition, and claims that he is driven there. Why? Because he fails to consider the prosperity of the many, and concentrates his efforts upon the success of a few. He is too busy to stop and think, and only does think because the fruits of his thoughtlessness are becoming so alarmingly apparent as to seriously affect the security of his possessions.

Charity Organization suggests a remedy for this state of affairs; and so should all social reforms that are worthy of the name seek to permanently elevate and bless all peoples, kindred, and tongues, and especially the people of our centres of population, so that the rights of the poorest and humblest will be respected no less than the rights and equities of the prosperous. This is an ideal state of society that will never be realized, say many. Be that as it may, it is the goal for which we as Charity Organizationists are all striving, and we are hopeful. We believe the signs of the times are propitious. The general interest in this and kindred subjects is momentarily increasing.

This Eighteenth National Conference of Charities and Correction, assembled at Indianapolis, will, we believe, add a continued impetus to its progress; and we as humble members should feel highly honored and privileged to be among its promoters and supporters.

VIII.

The Child Problem.

THE CHILD PROBLEM IN CITIES.

BY JOHN H. FINLEY,

SECRETARY OF THE STATE CHARITIES AID ASSOCIATION, NEW YORK.

There is no social principle more hopeful on the one hand, more dismal of contemplation on the other, than that which assures to age the character formed in the first years of life; which makes man heir to childhood's influences as well as to natal proclivities; which makes the reformation of a life next to hopeless where its right formation might have been easy. This principle is the key to the city's problems of poverty and vice. The child problem is, in fact, the whole problem of charities and correction, and in its solution will be solved for the next generation all those questions which are to-day the subject of study and discussion in this Conference. The problem begins simply enough with the entry in the city's register, "Born, a child"; but, before the student is done with it, he has traversed the whole field of municipal government, has discussed every factor in the problem of society, and in the record, "Died, a man," is brought face to face with the question of human destiny.

It will be my purpose in this paper to describe briefly the conditions which surround child life in the poorer quarters of New York City, to note some attempts which have been made in the direction of the solution of the problem which these conditions present, and to mark out a programme for future efforts in child rescue.

I. In the city of New York, 1890* (and New York City's problems are repeated in the small or the large in every great city of this country and of other countries), there were in the tenement-houses, according to estimate, 163,712 children under the age of five years. The estimated total number of children under five years in the city in the same year, 1890, was over 182,000; that is, of the total number of children under five years of age, eight-ninths lived in tenement-houses.

*See appendix, "How the Other Half lives," by Jacob A. Riis, pp. 299–304.

By a tenement-house, in this sense, is meant any house occupied as the home, or residence, of three or more families living independently of one another and doing their own cooking upon the premises, or by more than two families upon a floor, so living and cooking, but having a common right in the halls, stairways, yards, etc.* But the tenement-house in which, perhaps, one-half, if not more, of the tenement-dwellers live, was defined in the following manner in a court of justice some years ago, and is stated by Mr. Riis to be as true for to-day as it was then:† "It is generally a brick building, from four to six stories high on the street, frequently with a store on the first floor, which, when used for the sale of liquor, has a side opening for the benefit of the inmates and to evade the Sunday law. Four families occupy each floor; and a set of rooms consists of one or two dark closets used as bedrooms, with a living-room, twelve feet by ten. The staircase is too often a dark well in the centre of the house; and no direct ventilation is possible, each family being separated from the other by partitions. Frequently, the rear of the lot is occupied by another building of three stories high, with two families on a floor." In these rear tenements alone, 100,000 persons lived in 1889.

The physical ills and the moral evils to which these badly built, badly arranged houses make their tenants heir are aggravated by other conditions, which borrow, in turn, a part of their vitiating character from the tenement-house itself, the own mother of the city's slum, whose father is the greed of the landlords.

The first of these conditions is the overcrowding, the literal packing, of population in these great foul dwellings; and poverty in its hunger and greed in its passion are not careful of the family,— an institution in whose sacredness we believe society's pillars to rest. Men, women, and children are crowded in these places, like animals in a pen. In some quarters the population has risen to the rate of 330,000 souls to the square mile. Here are individual instances cited from Mr. Riis and other authorities: Two small rooms in a six-story tenement hold a family of father, mother, twelve children, and six boarders. Nine persons live in a room ten feet square, and a small hall-room adjoining. 58 babies and 38 children over five years of age the Board of Health found in one house; in another, 101 adults and 91 children; in another, 89 children; still another 170 children called their home. In certain quarters, at least, there is scarcely a room without one or more "boarders" occupants; some, with above half a score sleeping on cots or upon the floor.

* Laws of 1867, Chapter 908, Section 17. † "How the Other Half lives," p. 18.

The problem is still further complicated and the evil still further aggravated by the tenement-house industries. New York has factory laws which prescribe a limit to hours of labor for children, which forbid the employment in factories and shops of children under sixteen unless they can read and write English, and of all children under fourteen. But the tenement-house has provided a way of escape from these wise and humane restrictions. The brute "sweater himself," the creature of the exigency, presides over industries which once a goddess wise and gracious called her own. His shop is the tenement-house. "Here the child may work, unchallenged by the law, from the day he is old enough to pull a needle." * His immediate usefulness invites evasion of the compulsory education law, and he finds no time to learn the language whose knowledge is essential to an intelligent exercise of the rights of the citizen. Thus it comes that there are whole colonies in the heart of New York where the English tongue is practically unknown; for to the hindrances which the poverty or the greed of the parent places in the way of the education of the child the city adds one in its failure to provide sufficient school accommodations for all, so that it cannot consistently compel attendance upon school when there is not room for the pupil.

The following statistics collected from reports of the President of the Board of Education and the Superintendent of Schools, under date of Oct. 1, 1890, have been furnished to me by Dr. Zachos, Curator of the Cooper Institute:—

The legal school age is from 4 to 21 years. The limit of age for compulsory attendance upon school is 14. The estimated population between the ages of 5 and 14 years, is as follows: grammar, 103,000; primary, 168,000; total, 271,000. The estimated school population between the years of 14 and 21 is 208,000. Of the population between the ages of 14 and 21 there are taught in the public schools, 18,000; in the nautical, corporate, and evening schools, 18,000; in the parochial and private schools, 20,000; in the colleges and academies, 4,000. These make a total of 60,000.

If every one of the school population between the ages of 5 and 14 years should apply for admission to the public schools, and every class room and main room should be filled to its legal limit, there would remain 84,000 unsupplied with school accommodation. Accommodations would also be needed for the 18,000 over 14 years who have actually been taught in the public schools. Hence the apparent deficiency in the school accommodations would amount to 102,000 sittings. Taking into consideration the estimated attendance in other schools, etc., the deficiency amounts to about 100,000.

* See also "Our Toiling Children," by Florence Kelly Wischnewetsky.

It is stated on credible authority that half the school-boys, or more than half, leave school by the age of eleven years in the great cities of New York, Chicago, St. Louis, Brooklyn, New Orleans, and other cities. On the same authority, more than half the children, even under the best organized school systems, do not attend school more than three years. Thus in the formative period of life the child is left largely to the conditions of his own home, which have just been described, and the street.

There are other factors in the problem already difficult and complex. The home life from which the non-working child is crowded by the "boarder" is as badly substituted and supplemented by the life of the street, the realm of the never empty garbage and ash barrel, the school in which the worst examples are the teachers, the polluting channel of physical disease and moral contagion. Into the street from the home is a natural step: from the street into the saloon which stands on every corner is the next. "The law prohibiting the selling of liquor to minors," says Mr. Riis, "is about as much respected in the tenement-house district as the ordinance against swearing. Fostered and filled by the saloon, the 'growler' looms up in the New York street boy's life, baffling the most persistent efforts to reclaim him. There is no escape from it; no hope for the boy, once its blighting grip is upon him. Thenceforward the logic of the slums, that the world which gave him poverty and ignorance for his portion 'owes him a living,' is his creed; and the career of the 'tough' lies open for him,— a beaten track, to be blindly followed to a bad end in the wake of a 'growler.'"

Such is the cradle of the tenement-house child in the city of New York; such are the conditions in which its life is fostered; such are some of the factors, themselves the results of remoter causes, of the great child problem.

II. The labor of the public and of the individual in changing these conditions of child life divides on the line that the public, the State, shall do only what it can do better than the individual; and, in the programme I shall briefly present, the line shall be drawn, not in extension of the generally conceded domain of the State, but rather in broadening the territory of individual enterprise and effort.

The tenement-house is one of the factors which cannot be entirely eliminated. It has come in answer to a demand which schemes of transportation and transplantation into the country have failed and will fail to meet. The temples to Mammon must be converted into

"homes" on the same foundation. This must be the first step in the solution of the problem. The State's part is the enactment of laws which will, under rigid enforcement, insure a requisite amount of air and light to each tenant, oblige compliance with sanitary regulations, and compel such arrangements as will permit of family isolation. Certain foreign cities have gone even farther than this,—have torn down old tenements, and erected new and improved dwellings in their stead. The corporation of Liverpool a year ago completed a block of dwellings containing two hundred and seventy-one tenements, fitted with all conceivable conveniences, and enclosing a court for children's play-ground, etc.; and it may be noted that it rents these tenements for about one-third the rate at which an equal amount of floor-space is rented in some of the worst parts of New York City, and at a profit. But with us, at any rate, the building must be done by private enterprise, under State restriction. We have had examples in New York to show what individuals content with 5 per cent., instead of 30 or 50 or 100 per cent., can do. Mr. White in Brooklyn and Miss Collins and others in New York have afforded a practical demonstration of the profitableness of improved tenement building.* Christian capitalists would do well for themselves and for thousands of others in such investments; and it must rest with such or with others, for whose lack of beneficent motives the law must substitute compulsion, to change this condition of child life which vitiates all others. One obligation of wealth, one serious duty of citizenship, is, indeed, neglected, when one-half the children of our city are compelled to live in tenements whose death-rate is greater than in these better tenements.†

A second duty of the State is the extension of the factory laws to include industries carried on in tenements. Home industries, once a blessing to the home, are now, in the tenements, a curse to its life, because they permit the sacrifice of the health and morals of children to the greed of parents or to the poverty of poorly paid labor. If home industries are stopped or restricted, there must be a readjustment of wages, which may perhaps cause some temporary distress,

*A report of the Tenement House Building Company of New York, just published, shows that while the rental capacity of their "model tenements" is much less than other tenements by reason of wide entries and large courts, and while a loss has been entailed by refusal to rent premises for store purposes and for factory labor, these tenements yielded a net income of 4 per cent. in 1890 on capital stock, and a larger per cent. is assured for the coming year.

† In 1888 the death-rate in old tenements was 23.06; in new tenements, 22.42; in houses of Tenement Building Company, 14.28.

but must bring a permanent benefit to tenement child life and to society. The State, it may be added, should find another cause for interference here in the danger to the community through the spread of contagious diseases by tenement-made clothing.

A further duty is the rigid enforcement of truancy laws and of the fulfilment by parents of their moral obligations to their children. In aid of the former there must be a home to which truants can be sent. The enforcement of the latter is, and will always be, a difficult task for State or private society. It is virtually prescribing, as one has expressed it, "a minimum standard of decency," to which, on the ground of the public good, conformity is made compulsory, if one is to escape punishment or permanent sequestration. This principle of moral sanitation by law has been recognized in the existence of such bodies as the societies for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, the Indianapolis Children's Board of Guardians, and others.

In the fourth place, when the State has done what it can to make the child's home, physically and morally, a fit place to live in, it should provide the best possible system of free education. This system should include kindergartens for the younger children; for (I use the language of Mr. Richard Watson Gilder) "this is true beyond peradventure: plant a free kindergarten in any quarter of this overcrowded metropolis, and you have begun then and there the work of making better lives, better homes, better citizens, and a better city." I quote further the opinion of Professor William T. Harris, United States Commissioner of Education: "In my opinion, the kindergarten should be a part of the public school system of every city in the United States. The ideal kindergarten should take children at the age of four years and retain them for two years. The character of its work is such as to humanize the children in a way that is impossible for the primary school, conducted according to its methods. The great interest in our management of education in the cities of the country is to reach the children of the poorer classes of people, those who have insufficient dwelling accommodation and no yards for the children to play in. The children of the great tenement-houses are obliged to play on the street, and the influence upon them is anything but humanizing."

I have already alluded to the part private enterprise may take with profit to itself and the community — should take, indeed — in the building of better homes for the poor. There is another work that the individual can do, and that is in making *homes* even under the existing

unfavorable conditions. Some of the people who live in the worst part of the city have proved themselves superior to their surroundings, and, if the better influences which contact with lives of the more privileged brings were not wholly removed from their lives, the number of such might be multiplied many times. This is the work of the volunteer visitor, the neighbor, the friend. And the scope of volunteer service is almost without limit in any of the directions which I have named in enumerating the duties of the State with respect to the tenement-house child; *e.g.*, in personally superintending these tenements when built, and taking an interest in the well-being of the tenants, as some have done; in bettering the sanitary condition of homes, as voluntary associations are doing to-day; in promoting the enactment of wise ordinances and acts, and giving the city or State active support in the enforcement and proper administration of those laws; in undertaking work which the city or State will do only when assured of its practicability and its benefit to the entire community; and, finally, in carrying on the work which private enterprise must always continue to be. I cannot here even enumerate the many projects of volunteer effort which contribute directly or indirectly to the betterment of the condition of the children of the tenements. It must, as a rule, be the work of an individual with an individual or an individual family, for whatever object, and under whatever form of organization, the workers may be associated.

III. I have spoken of what the public and the individual may do for the child of the tenement-house *in its home*.

The next question — and that is one in which this Conference has been most concerned — is the disposition of those children of whom the State has assumed full charge. It will be necessary first to decide what children there is cause to place under the public authority. I follow a scheme submitted at a recent session of the Charity Congress in Belgium and endorsed by the Congress, believing that it answers our question fully.

1. Dependent children of three categories: foundlings, abandoned, orphans.

2. The morally abandoned (those who, by reason of infirmities, negligence, the vices of their parents, or other causes, find themselves left to themselves and deprived of an education).

3. Children acquitted as having acted without discernment of right and wrong, and those committed to reformatories up to twenty years of age.

4. Children held in the same reformatory institutions, whether by wish of the parent or as condemned for the commission with their full knowledge of misdemeanor or crimes.

1. As to the first class, the *foundlings*, the *abandoned*, and the *orphans*, there is practical unanimity in the opinion that they should, except when their condition does not permit, be carried back to the country and placed in families. The advantages of this method of disposing of dependent children are so obvious, and have been so often recited in this national Conference, and were only last year so clearly and forcibly set forth in the paper by Miss Putnam, of Massachusetts, that it seems hardly necessary to rehearse them. I shall, however, note very briefly the experiences of other countries and of some of our own States in the treatment of this class; and I find some apology for doing so in the fact that, in the face of the "practical unanimity" of opinion on the part of philanthropists and economists as to the wisdom of the placing of children in families, there stand these giant institutions as witnesses to the failure, either from inadequacy of machinery or from hindrances to its workings, of the system so generally recommended. What were once mere stations along the road by which the child journeyed from the home broken up by the death of the parent, or by some other cause, to another home, have grown into great juvenile boarding establishments. Associations, organized for transportation purposes chiefly, have apparently forgotten their original charters and gone into the victualling business; and finding it more profitable, with the aid they have from the public, than the mere transporting of the child passengers, they have ceased to put out new lines into the country, and have even abandoned lines already laid. Some roads are now operated, it would seem, for the benefit of the institutions, and not primarily for the public good. The sectarian and other inducements which are held out encourage parents to send their children up for a few years during the unremunerative period of their lives, while the public pays for their board and clothing. "Discharged to parents" or "Discharged to friends" is a most frequent and a very suggestive entry in the register. The question is pertinent, Why do these enormous institutions exist and continue to grow? Why is it that we are practically not in advance of people of one hundred years ago in this matter, with all the experience of these years behind us? As it is the greed of landlordism that packs the wretched tenement house, so, I think, it is in a measure the pride, the unconsciously selfish inter-

ests of institutions that fill to overflowing their great structures. I cannot better illustrate this fact than by citing an instance from my own experience. Last winter a bill was introduced in the legislature of the State of New York, which, if enacted, would have emptied in a few months the children's institutions of the State of New York of half their inmates. The measure was objectionable on good grounds; but the objection made to it by a superintendent of a prominent child's institution, in my presence, indicates, I think, the spirit in which at least some of these institutions are managed. "Why," he said, "it will ruin our institution. We are building an extension, and we shall have no children to put in it."

Added to this cause are the indifference of the public and the political interest of some in maintaining existing conditions. Mrs. Lowell, in a letter to one of the New York papers a few days ago, showed that New York City was paying without official protest, under direction of State laws, the enormous sum of nearly two millions of dollars annually into the hands of private institutions, many of whose inmates, but for this provision, would not, probably, be dependent at all, while *public* dependents, under the care of *public* officers, in *public* institutions, are housed in buildings which are, on the confession of the President of the Department of Charities and Correction dangerous to life and creditable neither to decency nor civilization.

The chief cause is not, however, the public apathy, nor the institutional pride and selfishness. It is the inducement which the public holds out to parents and relatives to relieve themselves of the responsibility of their children. I quote from Mrs. Lowell's report to the State Board of Charities, 1889:—

> The increase* has been ascribed to the per capita allowance for the maintenance of children from the city funds, and to that provision of the law of 1875 known as the "religious clause." That this law should serve to increase the number of dependent children was to be expected, because it provided exactly the care which parents desire for their children, that of persons of their own religious faith, and supplied ample means for the children's support; although the funds were to be derived from public sources, yet, since the institutions were to be managed by private persons, the stigma which fortunately attaches

*At the time of the passage of the law the city of New York was supporting 9,963 children in private institutions and on Randall's Island, at a cost of $757,858. In 1888 it supported 14,939 children in private institutions and 758 on Randall's Island, at a cost of $1,526,517 for the children in private institutions and at a cost of $106,274 for the children on Randall's Island,—a total of 15,697 dependent children at a cost of $1,632,891 for one year. This is an increase since 1875 of 6,334 children and $875,033 in cost.

to public relief was removed. Thus every incentive to parents to place their children upon the public for support was created by the provisions of the law, and every deterrent was removed; for the law demanded nothing from the parent in return for the support of his child, and did not deprive him of any of his rights over the child, although relieving him of every duty toward it.

Turning from the causes which have led to the congested condition of the institutions in cities to the placing-out system, its prescribed remedy, I am reminded of Mr. Booth's gigantic scheme. I do not speak of it to discuss it, but merely to say that, however well the project of city, farm, and over-the-sea colonies may work, Mr. Booth will be but gathering the scum from the great metropolitan pools. The scum-making conditions remain so long as there is no under-the-surface outlet. The stream that finds its way from the distant hills into this pool may be never so pure, the flowers that it carries on its surface never so beautiful, the storm that moves its depths never so violent, the scum will not cease to gather if there does not run a current of living water through it. If the money that is spent by the city and by private charity annually in building higher the embankment were expended in digging ditches out into the great fields, turning this stream of children out into family homes in the country, the necessity for Mr. Booth's and other "scum-skimming" work would undoubtedly be greatly lessened.

The boarding-out system — that is, placing in families — has proved successful in every country where it has been tried. In Ireland the natural temperament of the people has made it especially successful; in Scotland the employment of this method has been attended by a marked diminution of pauperism; in France it has been in vogue from time immemorial; and, indeed, in every European country "there is evidence that from early ages it suggested itself as the natural method for providing for children without parents." John Skelton, writing in 1876, says that the boarding-out system has been attended, in so far as the children are concerned, with most beneficial results; and that, with rare and doubtful exceptions, the introduction of the practice has not been productive of any evil effects in the districts where the children are boarded. The boarding-out system has not succeeded in those cases (*a*) where the children are boarded with persons in receipt of parochial relief or with aged and infirm relatives; (*b*) where inspection and supervision are not vigilant and habitual; (*c*) where an excessive number of children are boarded with one guar-

dian; (*d*) where an excessive number of children are boarded in one parish. But these failures are all avoidable under proper supervision. Mr. Aschrott, to whom we are greatly indebted for his careful study of the poor-law system of England, presents, however, another objection. "There is serious danger," he says, "that many a laborer who sees that children deserted by their parents are thus cared for may think that, if he deserts his own, and leaves them to the poor law, it would be the best thing he could do for them." "At any rate," he adds, "this system deprives the laborer of all inducement to make provision for his children on his death." This objection, however, I do not consider a really serious one. The parental love of one so considerate of his child's welfare as to entertain the thought of alienating it permanently for its own good would cling to it in the end.

I have recently read a description* of an admirable placing-out system in vogue in some of the cities of the German Empire. I beg to quote it in full in this connection: —

One of the most felicitous of the special functions undertaken by the *Armenverbände* of Frankfort is their provision for the large class of orphans as well as the children of parents either depraved or permanently unfitted by illness or other reason for the support and education of a family. The fact is fully realized that the most effective charity for these waifs of humanity is to lift them out of their unfortunate surroundings and bring them up in a wholesome moral atmosphere. The plan usually followed is to take children of this class away from the city, and place them amid the healthier surroundings of country or village life. The method pursued is as follows. A visitor in one of the precincts reports, through his chairman, to the central committee that he has found a child whose circumstances are such as to require interference. The central committee examines the case; and, if the report of the visitor is sustained, the child is taken in charge and placed temporarily in an orphan asylum provided for that purpose. The committee then seeks, through the burgomasters of different villages, to find a family of good character which would be willing for a stated sum — ordinarily about $30 per year — to take charge of a child, whose clothing, school-books, and medical attendance will be provided for by the committee. It is easy to find families willing to undertake such a charge. The little waif is comfortably dressed, and brought to his new home by one or more members of the city committee, who sees the pastor, the school-teacher, and the village physician, and solicits their especial care and protection for the child about to be established in their midst. For this care the teacher and physician are paid a stated though modest allowance per annum. The family having the child in charge be-

* Report of Consul-General Mason, of Frankfort-on-the-Main.

comes thenceforth subject to surveillance by three of the foremost citizens of the place, besides occasional visits from members of the committee in the city.

Such a machine requires time for its building and the active and intelligent service of hundreds and thousands of volunteers. It is suggested that in New York City there is needed, first of all, a commissioner to look after her dependent children. Though nearly twenty thousand children are annually maintained at the public expense, at a cost of nearly two millions of dollars, there is not a city nor a county officer, except the Board of Health officer, who has legal right of entrance into the houses where they are kept. The city is obliged by State law to pay a per capita sum for each child in many of the institutions, and is obliged to accept the report of superintendent of the institutions as basis of payment.

In the next place, until such a machine as that above described can be built and put into operation, it will be necessary to offer inducements to the institutions to place out instead of to retain children. One suggestion is that the per capita allowance be reduced to a point which will make the boarding business unprofitable. If the "religious clause," to which I have referred, were erased from our statute books and appropriations to sectarian institutions stopped, another obstacle in the way of placing out would be removed.

2. Placing in families is generally recognized as the best disposition of the "morally abandoned," defined in the category above; the placing to be preceded, of course, by careful inquiry into the conduct and character of the child and the condition and morality of its parents.

3. Concerning the care of delinquent children, included in the third and fourth categories, I shall not here speak, as this subject will be treated in the paper to follow this report.

I have briefly described the conditions of child life in the tenements of New York City. I have indicated some of the processes in the solution of the child problem in that city. Its complete solution means the abolition of the "slums." This will come when the one half, the privileged half, takes enough interest in the other half and in the welfare of society at large to compel the enactment and enforcement of such laws as have been mentioned above, and to supplement State supervision by personal activity in the rescue of the helpless victims of existing pernicious social conditions.

THE CARE OF DELINQUENT CHILDREN.

BY HOMER FOLKS,

GENERAL SUPERINTENDENT OF THE CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

At the last session of the International Prison Conference, held in St. Petersburg, June, 1890, the following question was discussed: "To what extent and in what manner can the family plan be substituted for the congregate reformatory in the care of delinquent children?" In introducing the subject, Miss Fowke, of London, said: "It is not surprising that the same spirit of clear-sighted philanthropy which has recognized the danger and futility of sending young criminals to prisons now begins to ask whether reformatory and industrial schools, which for their inmates are at once a home and a school, are not in reality but one step in advance, and whether it is not time to take another and more important one, and to restore the reprobates of society to family life."

The object of this paper is to set before you a year of actual work in caring for such children in families, and to offer what seems to us a fair interpretation of the results. Since it is my purpose to consider a certain line of facts rather than to state a theory or outline an argument, my paper must necessarily take on something of the nature of a report of our work.

In the nine years since its organization the Children's Aid Society of Pennsylvania has made provision for 3,927 children. At first considerable use was made of various institutions for the temporary care of children; but every step taken since its organization, after a careful study of the work, has been toward a more exclusive use of the family plan. Its first efforts were in behalf of destitute children, but it soon came to find that there were no hard-and-fast lines separating children into classes. Many of these children received from the almshouse or from destitute families proved themselves, in one way or another, troublesome, and the Society found the whole problem of delinquent children continually forced upon its consideration. At nearly every meeting the question arose, Is it best to place this troublesome child in a reformatory or in a carefully selected private family? Very naturally, both methods were tried and the results studied. It is to me a fact of tremendous significance that after

eight years of such experience the Society determined not only to provide for the delinquent children whom it might thus find in its charge, but to make a special effort for the rescue of the younger children who had found their way to the police stations and criminal courts.

These eight years of experience had shown to the Society certain evils which, in spite of untiring zeal and noble devotion on the part of managers and officers, seemed inherent in the reformatory system. These I will briefly indicate :—

1. The temptation it offers to parents and guardians to throw off their most sacred responsibilities. Abundant evidence that this is frequently done has come under our immediate observation. A woman called at our office not long since to ask how she could secure admission for her son to the Huntingdon Reformatory, stating incidentally that she had sent both her daughters to be educated in the House of Refuge, but was inclined to prefer an institution in the country for her son. We could multiply such instances almost indefinitely. Within two months our agent has found in the county prisons, awaiting trial, two young men who were at an early age sent to a reformatory for a home and to be educated. This consideration is not new to this Conference, having been made prominent in the inaugural address of the President of the Conference of 1889, Bishop Gillespie, and also emphasized in the discussions of last year. We would again call attention to the fact that in proportion as the educational and industrial features of these institutions are perfected this temptation is increased. A recent report of the State Industrial School of New York, which has been quite radical in its innovations, states that "as the natural result of the abolition of the prison system, the adoption of the more enlightened methods of discipline, and the creation of these departments [*i.e.*, of industrial training], the number to be supported and governed has, as we have seen, largely increased." This must inevitably be the case as long as children are kept in large institutions, which seem to parents to offer such unusual advantages, and where they can visit their children frequently. They are much less willing to have their children sent to a distance, especially when nothing more wonderful than ordinary home life is offered.

2. The contaminating influence of association. It is certainly unjust to crowd into one building the good and the bad, the innocent and depraved, the homeless boy and the juvenile criminal. Is it not just as unwise to put under one roof numbers of children who are

equally depraved and criminal? Cut off from the infinite diversity of interests of ordinary life, will they not inevitably dwell on the evils which led to their commitment, and tell over to each other the story of their lives, and teach each other whatever cunning device they may have known? Probably nothing has done more to emphasize the hereditary aspect of crime than the little volume entitled "The Jukes." Considering that heredity is often reckoned as an argument for the reformatory, is it not strange that the same research which gave to the world the story of the Jukes family led its author to declare that "prisons and houses of refuge are the nurseries, not the reformatories, of crime," and to denounce the congregate system, which he declares allows abundant opportunity for criminal training?

3. The enduring stigma which the fact of having been committed to such an institution fastens upon the child. The reformatory is, first and foremost, a place to which criminal children are sent to be reformed; and the implication is, in the case of every child thus committed, that the community was obliged in self-defence to place it behind bars. Just as the criminal discharged from prison finds it difficult or impossible to reinstate himself in society, so the boy discharged from the reformatory finds himself branded with the trademark of crime. This perpetuates the evil of association, since the discharged boy seeks as his companions those who by similar discipline and education have the same interests and sympathies.

4. Such a system renders impossible the study and treatment of each child as an individual. As we shall show later on, we fail to find any common traits running through this mass of children by virtue of which they require the same treatment. On the contrary, each child who has fallen into the hands of the law has done so through a perfectly definite series of facts, and has individual characteristics and peculiarities. Moral infirmities require as careful diagnosis as physical, and to treat all practically alike seems to us as wild as for a physician to prescribe one sort of medicine for all diseases.

5. The great dissimilarity between life in an institution and life outside. How great the change the day the boy steps from the institution to family life! His temptation has been reduced to a minimum. Perhaps committed for larceny, he has had no chance to commit larceny since. Now he is thrown into the midst of temptations, doubly powerful because of novelty. Just at this moment the strict discipline must be withdrawn. The routine of life by which he has been carried along is removed. To-day he must decide for him-

self a hundred matters which yesterday were decided for him. All these make new and large demands for individuality and self-control, and a knowledge of the affairs of ordinary life. Of the 95 children readmitted to the House of Refuge in 1890, 43 or 45 per cent. had been discharged *less than three months.*

Having for these reasons come to distrust the reformatory system, we have tried in earnest the bold experiment of placing such children in families. Deciding about a year ago to extend our work in this line, we gave notice through the press that we would receive such children. We established friendly relations with the police headquarters. We sent a circular letter to the magistrates and judges, explaining our methods and offering to receive delinquent children under fourteen years of age. We have gone to the county prison, where boys were awaiting trial on various charges, and, after inquiring into their history, have received them from the judge of the criminal court, after a verdict of guilty had been pronounced.

Since June, 1890, we have received from these sources forty-one such children, who belong unquestionably to the so-called delinquent class, and who but for our special effort would have been committed to reformatory institutions. The charges against these children were as follows: vagrancy, six; immoral tendencies, five; forgery, one; runaways, six; larceny, eleven; ill-tempered and unmanageable, twelve. The disposition made of the children is as follows: Of the six vagrants, two received under protest, on account of their age, were placed for wages near the city, and disappeared at the close of the first month; one was returned to parents; three confirmed vagrants were placed with families at a distance from the city, where they remain and show most encouraging signs of improvement. The five girls with immoral tendencies were placed at a distance, and all give evidence of decided improvement. Also the forger, a girl of fourteen. Of the six runaways, two disappeared in the city before their antecedents could be traced; the other four were found to have both parents living. Three were returned to their homes: the fourth was left in the Society's care, his home being such as to justify his departure. The eleven boys convicted of larceny were all placed at a distance from the city, and with two exceptions have remained where placed, with decided improvement; and, of the twelve ill-tempered and unmanageable, seven were thus placed, all with excellent results. Of the four who remained in the city, two show slight improvement and two were returned to their parents unim-

proved, one of whom had spent two years in a reformatory, and one was recalled by his people, who were not willing that he should be sent to a distance. To summarize, then, of the twenty-eight over whom the Society had sufficient control to remove them from the city, twenty-six have remained as first placed, unless changed by the Society, and show decided improvement. The two exceptions repeated their offence and returned to the city very soon after their removal, but were recovered and placed in another part of the State, and have remained six and three months in their places. One shows decided improvement, the other doubtful.

These results have been more encouraging than most of us had dared to hope. We have sometimes left our wards in their homes with fear and trembling, and returned half expecting the next mail to announce their evil-doing and disappearance. But we have been happily surprised as weeks passed by and all the reports were hopeful. Later visits were full of encouragement. The old life and associations have, for a time at least, been forgotten. Among the hopeful signs are, in most cases, greatly improved physical health, a quickening of the mental faculties by regular attendance at school and a multitude of new associations and interests, a growth of the moral sense, especially in regard to the right of property, more self-control and submission to discipline, and the recognition of religious obligations and privileges.

A few words as to the methods by which these results have been secured. I can readily conceive of certain conditions under which the result would have been far different. If, sitting in our office, we had counted these boys out like articles of merchandise to those who might happen to come to us for the purpose of securing cheap service, without careful study of each child, and careful investigation of every family proposing to undertake their training; if we had placed these boys near the city, where "taking children" is a recognized method of lessening the expenditure for hired help, and where the alternative of a return to the old associations is continually presented; if we had insisted that the city boy, going to the country with absolutely no knowledge of farm life and duties, must be self-supporting from the first; and if, further, we had "bound out" the boy to serve his master until he had reached a certain age, and to receive no compensation whatever until the end of this period,—under these circumstances it would have required no prophet to assure us of the hopeless failure of our experiment.

The first step when the child is received, or before, if possible, is a careful study of his antecedents, his home life, and his companions. Such an investigation often throws a flood of light upon the causes of the delinquency, and is invaluable in determining what new environment will most counteract these forces making for evil, and develop new interests along those lines in which the child may have natural abilities or tastes.

As a rule, these children are sent a considerable distance from any large city,— usually from 250 to 300 miles from Philadelphia. In finding homes for these children, we do not rely upon the natural demand for servants. We discard all applications like the following, which is a true copy: "I desire to adopt a little girl about fifteen years of age. I intend to raise her in the nurture and admonition of the Lord, therefore she must be of good disposition, and not too small in stature." We usually advertise for families willing to board a boy and give attention to his moral training. Among the answers to such an advertisement are nearly always several from the very best families of the neighborhood. The other applications are discarded. Having made sure, by a system of references and personal visitation, which homes are desirable, it still remains to decide which family can do most for the individual child under consideration. This decision is of immense importance, for no truer words were ever uttered than those of Miss Fowke: "The real success of the work must depend upon the choice of families." It is not easy to explain the care with which each child is fitted into his new surroundings; and the best results often seem to come from a sort of intuition,— an intuition born, however, of years of experience in placing children in families. Another consideration of importance is that very few of these children are expected to be self-supporting from the start. The city boy is a total stranger to country life and work, and must receive careful instruction. After the novelty passes away, he inevitably becomes, at times, impatient of its monotony, and feels a peculiar and powerful yearning for the excitement of the city. He has days when he is restless, impatient, impudent. All this requires an amount of patience and intelligent training which we cannot secure without remuneration; nor have we any right, on purely business principles, to expect it. We therefore pay for their training, education, and maintenance, usually at the rate of $2.00 per week. The greater control which the Society retains over the boarding child, the difference in the standing of the child in the community, the higher

grade of homes which can be obtained, the necessity of tiding over these outbursts of temper, which would otherwise result in the return of the child,— all these emphasize the importance of this remuneration. This expense is entirely justifiable; for, if the same children had been placed in reformatories, they would have cost the community from $150 to $200 per year. Is there any reason why the community should not pay the country farmer or tradesman the same amount, if necessary, provided he secures for them equally good or better results? However, a study of the comparative costs of the different methods, published in the last number of the *Children's Aid Journal*, shows a difference in the yearly cost of from $50 to $100 per capita in favor of the family plan.

What do we seem to have learned from this year's work? First, we have a clearer idea as to who compose this class of delinquent children. It is very easy to speak of these as "the children of criminals," or "the offspring of the slums," and the fact of heredity in crime is unquestioned. Such children there are in the number; but to infer that all, or nearly all, belong to this class, is a most unwarranted and unjustifiable assumption. While statistics as to this point are very incomplete, they are highly suggestive. 400 boys were admitted to the State Industrial School of New York (formerly the Western House of Refuge) during the past year; of only 61 had either parent been arrested. Of 460 inmates received at the Huntingdon Reformatory, the taint of crime could be found in the parentage of only 19; the parentage of 441 being, as far as could be ascertained, respectable as against 19 criminal. Of our own children the parents of 24 are eminently respectable and law-abiding; of 12, disreputable.

We are willing to go a step farther, and assert our belief that not only are many of these children of respectable parentage, but that a considerable portion are themselves very little different from ordinary children. The readiness with which these children have responded to their new environments and have formed new attachments, and their submission to the regulations of the household, all seem to indicate that they are not so very different from ordinary children as to require that heroic treatment which may be necessary for adult criminals. To what, then, shall this large share of juvenile delinquency be attributed? To a thousand different causes, which can be decided in each case only by careful study, but which can in a majority of cases be traced to a lack of parental oversight, due to the loss of one or both parents. The death of a father or mother leaves

too heavy a burden on the surviving parent, and the children suffer, receiving their training in the street, not in the home. While we have no statistics as to the proportion of orphan children in the community, it is evidently not large. The records, however, show that about half of the children committed to reformatories are orphans or half-orphans.

Of the children committed to the Philadelphia House of Refuge in 1889, 57 per cent. were orphans or half-orphans; of those committed in 1890, 50 per cent.; of children committed to the Morganza Reform School in 1889, 48 per cent.; in 1890, 50 per cent.; of those committed to the State Industrial School of New York in 1890, 40 per cent.; to the Cincinnati House of Refuge, 45 per cent.

In a few cases the root of the trouble lies in some physical weakness or defect which renders the child ill-tempered and troublesome, — which is, being interpreted, incorrigible. In several of our cases, improved health, due to mountain air and country life, has solved the problem. How unwise to place such children in a large institution, where the chances for good health are, at least, not above the average!

The runaways are a peculiarly interesting and difficult class. It is an established custom among them to insist that they are orphans and homeless. To win their confidence and learn the true story of their wanderings is a task requiring the greatest delicacy and tact. Perhaps the necessity for painstaking study of each individual is nowhere more apparent than in dealing with this class.

We have also learned that homes of high grade can be secured for this work. Our worst children are trained by the very best families in the community. Several of our boys are in charge of men whom their fellow-citizens have honored with positions of trust.

We have proven, too, that we can hold the children by our methods. The fear that they would run away, which harassed us when we began the work, we have seen to be largely ill-founded. We have learned that boys, incorrigible boys, may be kept in their places by other means than stone walls. This fact is fast being recognized within institutions as well as out. The last report of a well-known institution remarks upon the significance of the fact that "boys sent out of the city upon their honor disdain to take advantage of the trust imposed in them, and yet sometimes the same boys will attempt to scale the walls and thus escape, selecting the very highest place for their attempt."

While of course it is too soon to say that we have reformed these

boys, recognizing ourselves that our work is still largely of the nature of an experiment, we are able to say that, with the two exceptions noted, we have kept these children from committing farther crime; and, considering the nature of the offences for which they were received, this is a most encouraging fact. We can say farther that in nearly every case there is a marked improvement in lines already indicated, which, unless there are some sudden and radical disturbances of which we see no indication, must lead ultimately to reformation and good citizenship.

I shall not consider the objections which might be urged against this method as regards its effect upon the children themselves, as I have already anticipated them in my explanation of the work. There remains to be considered one other objection. We are continually being told that our method is dangerous to the community, and in saving one child we corrupt ten others. We reply that this is an entirely gratuitous assumption regarding what is a matter of fact, not of opinion; that we continually have this consideration in our minds, and endeavor to reduce such danger to a minimum by placing our children in families of adults; that many of these children are not the depraved creatures often supposed; that much of their former life seems to have been laid aside and superseded by new interests; and that we have failed to see any specific instances of such contamination. That there may be a certain amount of undesirable knowledge communicated we would not deny; but is this not inevitable under any system? Does not depravity propagate itself in the reformatory as well as out, in the city as well as in the country?

The chief magistrate of this nation said in a speech a few days since: "The American home is the one thing we cannot afford to lose out of American life. As long as we have pure homes, and God-fearing, order-loving fathers and mothers to rear the children that are given to them, and to make these homes the abodes of order, cleanliness, piety, and intelligence, American society and the American Union are safe." It is this sort of home life that we would bring to bear upon each separate unit of the delinquent class. In this moral infirmary we believe that ignorance, injustice, vice, and hatred are to be cured by their opposites,— knowledge, justice, purity, and love, to be administered in large quantities.

THE ILLINOIS INDUSTRIAL TRAINING SCHOOL FOR BOYS.

BY OSCAR L. DUDLEY, OF CHICAGO, ILL.

For fourteen years I was in charge of the work of the Humane Society for the State of Illinois. Probably no one in our State has been called upon to investigate more cases of cruelly treated, neglected, or homeless children than I was during that period. I arrested and caused to be prosecuted the first case of cruelty to children ever prosecuted in the State. The publicity given that case caused other complaints to be made, until the work of rescuing children became enormous. Many institutions were found ready and willing to care for all of their children except the street boys or waifs. I took many of them to my own home and cared for them, and soon found that, with a little moral training and something practical for them to do, they would develop into as intelligent and capable boys as could be found anywhere. I was convinced that, to benefit these boys permanently, it was necessary to have legal control over them ; that we should have the right to remove them from their evil surroundings, reclaiming them from vagrant habits and companionship of vice, and to place them under moral influences.

The following are some of the reasons presented to us for not massing dependent boys in large cities, where the experiment has been tried with ill success or absolute failure : it lacks the power of permanent reform ; its tendency is to develop beggars ; it has proved in many instances to act as a premium on vagrancy.

We have a class of boys who are migratory waifs. They pass from city to city, finding a temporary home provided by a generous public, of which they avail themselves for a little while, then pass on, thus becoming in time full-fledged, incurable tramps.

In considering the best methods to adopt in dealing with this class of boys, we found that the great school at Mettray, near Tours, France, was the most successful. This school of Mettray is the true parent of all institutions which are intended, not merely to punish, but to reform and restore to society juvenile delinquents. M. Demetz, a member of the Parisian bar, struck with the evils and hardships attending the sending to prison of young and, considering

their training, scarcely responsible criminals, there to languish hopelessly for a time, emerging worse than before they entered, resolved to found a school which should have for its object the reformation of this class of children. Accordingly, in 1839 the school, or, as it is called, "The Colony of Mettray," was established. Thus M. Demetz, by his assiduous labors and self-devotedness, rendered to France one of the greatest benefits that could be conferred on society by proving that by agricultural and other labors of industry, together with well-considered rules of organization and discipline, the neglected and homeless waifs might be enabled to occupy an honorable place in society.

The following principles are emphasized: first, it is fundamental that a school for the care of such children should be placed on rich and fertile ground; second, the children must be separated into small groups, and ruled as much as possible like a family; third, great attention must be paid to moral and religious training; fourth, agriculture, with manual training, must be made an important feature; and, last, the home should be a perpetual home by caring for its children after they pass into the world to do for themselves.

Four years ago, becoming fully convinced that these were the correct principles to adopt in dealing with this class of our children, I began the effort to establish an institution which should carry out as nearly as possible all of these conditions. Fortunately, the State of Illinois has already enacted a law authorizing the establishing of industrial training schools for boys. A few benevolent gentlemen became interested in the cause, and a charter was obtained in February, 1887, for "The Illinois Industrial Training School for Boys." With limited means, the public not fully realizing the great necessity for such an institution, nothing was done until the following June, when the charter members perfected the organization, and rented a building surrounded by four acres of ground. Mrs. Ursula L. Harrison, whose ability to manage this class of boys is phenomenal, was selected as superintendent, and the announcement was made that the institution was open for the reception of the dependent street boys. This was on the 29th of June, 1887. The following day ten boys were sent to the home by our county court, and the next day two more came, so that we celebrated our first Fourth of July with twelve wild, untamed boys. A school-room was soon fitted up, and the boys were placed in school. Others arrived so

rapidly that at the end of six months over one hundred boys were in the home. Military drill was introduced. Shops for broom-manufacturing, shoemaking, wood-carving, and other industries, were added. But we still lacked the farm for our agricultural training, and our quarters were already overcrowded.

The institution, however, was destined to experience a sudden and immense increase in its prosperity and usefulness. We found a patron and benefactor in the Hon. Milton George, whose name deserves to be held in grateful remembrance as long as Chicago shall endure for his noble contribution to this work. Mr. George, who made his fortune in the agricultural newspaper business, had long cherished the idea of establishing some kind of an agricultural school. We heard of his plans, and induced him to graft his ideas on the Illinois Industrial Training School for Boys. The result was that Mr. George deeded to the school a farm of three hundred acres of land for a new site for the institution. This farm is called "Rural Glen," and lies a half-mile west of the village of Glenwood, twenty-three miles south of Chicago, on the Chicago & Eastern Illinois Railroad. It is, indeed, a beautiful piece of property. The surface of the land is rolling, abounding in excellent springs of water. It is crossed by two branches of the Calumet River. It has a fertile soil, beautiful groves, and is almost romantic in its scenery. The land is estimated to be worth ninety thousand dollars; and the improvements on it at the time of its conveyance to the school, ten thousand dollars more. Mr. George gave this property on the single condition that the citizens of Chicago should raise forty thousand dollars for the erection of buildings suitable for the work of the institution.

We then applied ourselves to the task of raising the forty thousand dollars to obtain this splendid donation, and succeeded; although not without an immense amount of hard work, as the number of our inmates had been steadily increasing, and money had to be raised for our current expenses at the same time. At last, however, the land was secured, the buildings erected, and the school was moved to its new home in June, 1890. The new buildings, aside from those already on the farm for agricultural purposes, are seven in number, and are arranged in a semicircle, with the concave side facing toward the village. In height they are all two stories and a basement, and are built of rough brick on stone foundations, and are given as much beauty in design as the material admits of. The administration building stands in the centre, and contains the offices, reception-

rooms, kitchen, laundry, bakery, officers' and employees' dining-rooms, and the great dining-room for the children of the entire institution. One hundred feet to the rear of the administration building is the armory, the main floor of which is devoted to military drill and the gymnasium, and the upper floor to the training schools in wood-work. Here the sloyd system can be seen, together with wood-carving and ordinary carpentering; and there is also a shoe-shop where all the repairing for the institution is done. From forty to fifty boys are daily given instruction in these departments. There are four cottages, two on each side of the administration building, which cost about five thousand dollars each. The main floor of each cottage contains a parlor, care-taker's room, boys' wardrobe and lavatory, large reading-room and library for the boys, and a sewing-room; while the upper floor is devoted to sleeping-rooms, one of which is the teacher's room, and six rooms for the boys, each accommodating five pupils, making room for thirty boys in each cottage. The basement of each cottage is fitted up as a play-room for the pupils in cold and stormy weather. The furniture and appointments are of beautiful design, and the boys are made to feel that this is a real home rather than an institution. At the north end of the semicircle stands the school-house, almost as large as the administration building, containing four school-rooms for as many grades of scholars, and fitted up with all modern appliances for the comfort and convenience of the pupils. The extensive lawn in front of these buildings has been graded, and laid out in plats, walks, and drives.

We have already received and cared for five hundred and sixty boys; but, as it is not thought best to keep them in an institution longer than is necessary to fit them for homes in private families, and the private homes can be found for them, over three hundred of these boys have been placed in such homes, mostly in Iowa, Minnesota, and Dakota, while others have been restored to friends, thus leaving in the home at the present time one hundred and sixty-eight boys. Almost daily new recruits are received from the courts, and additional cottages are already needed.

It is fully understood that this home was established for the purpose of caring for and providing a home for the dependent and homeless street boys, who, from age, vicious habits, and evil surroundings, were not eligible for existing institutions.

The following is the section of our State law defining what constitutes a dependent boy, and what must be set forth in the petition to bring him before the court: —

79. Petition to Establish Dependency Parties. Sec. 3. Any responsible person, a resident of any county in this State, may petition the county court, or any court of record in said county, to inquire into the alleged dependency of any boy then within the county, and every boy who shall come within the following description shall be considered a dependent boy,— namely, every boy who frequents any street, alley, or other place for the purpose of begging or receiving alms; every boy who shall have no permanent place of abode, proper parental care or guardianship; every boy who shall not have sufficient means of subsistence, or who from other cause shall be a wanderer through the streets and alleys or other public places; and every boy who shall live with or frequent the company of, or consort with, reputed thieves or other vicious persons. The petitioner shall also state the name of the father and mother of the boy, if living and if known, or, if either be dead, the name of the survivor, if known; and if neither the father nor mother of the boy be living, or to be found in the county, or their names to be ascertained, then the name of the guardian, if there be one. If there be a parent living whose name can be ascertained, or a guardian, the petition shall set forth not only the dependency of the boy, but shall also show either that the parents or parent or guardian are or is not fit persons or person to have the custody of such boy, or that, if fit, the father, mother, or guardian consents or consent to the boy being found dependent. Such petition shall be verified by oath upon the belief of the petitioner; and, upon being filed, the judge of the court shall have the boy named in the petition brought before him for the purpose of determining the application in said petition contained, and for the hearing of such petition the county court shall be considered always open.

Upon the filing of the petition, the alleged dependent boy is brought before the court and a jury of twelve men, who proceed to hear the case. If found dependent by the jury, the court orders his commitment to the training-school, and appoints one of its officers the guardian of the boy, and he is immediately taken to the school. These boys are usually the children of unfortunate, dissipated, or vicious parents, who have left them to roam the streets, sleep wherever they can find shelter, and learn to beg or steal almost necessarily from the force of circumstances. They are serving an apprenticeship which will fit them almost inevitably for a life of crime. Their associations lead them unavoidably into contact with the criminal classes. Experience has shown that these boys are as intelligent and as capable of receiving a training for lives of usefulness as the average of more fortunate children.

The training-school is in no sense a prison, having no bolts or bars;

but, instead, the boys are governed by love and kindness, it being our aim to cultivate in them good manners, cleanliness of person, decency of language, habits of industry, and an appreciation of good morals and honesty, thus fitting them for entrance into homes where they can grow to manhood and develop the essential qualities of good citizenship.

All who are interested in the homeless street, or incorrigible, children should pay a visit to this home, and see the orderly, well-behaved boys helping to make a home for themselves. Mrs. Harrison has remained with us from the first, and has been of incalculable benefit to us in building up our institution.

We believe, with the beautiful farm of three hundred acres, new buildings just completed, and others added as required, the homeless street boys of our state can be properly cared for, and saved before they really become criminals, so that there will be no need of reform schools.

Teach the boys trades; not only educate the head, but the hand as well; make them skilled workmen at some trade or calling: then you can send them out to fight life's battles honorably and successfully. The system we have adopted is to save the children. It is preventive and natural. It is humane, and humanity and economy have no conflict. Prevention is safe and economical. Reformation is uncertain, and punishment never restores self-respect. It is better to save than to reform or punish a child. These boys yield readily to kindly influences almost without exception. Their little hearts are not yet hardened. The good in the nature of the street boy, as of other boys, predominates over the bad, if it is given an opportunity.

THE ECONOMIC VIEW OF PREVENTIVE WORK AMONG CHILDREN.

BY CHARLES D. KELLOGG, NEW YORK.

This view is, perhaps, the lowest, and might be called a sordid one, of this vital problem; but, even if so, it discovers reasons enough, did no higher ones exist, why work for dependent children should seek, not temporary physical care, but their moral elevation and their education for self-support.

Let us ask, first, what dependence is. We all begin life dependent on somebody. Nothing is more helpless than a baby; and no necessities are more imperative than those of the child. But God has so appointed it that all right-minded people — parents, teachers, and pastors — are touched and actuated by this dependence of childhood, and are continually working for the child's future, to make that useful, happy, and noble. Now, this is exactly the type of charity which should be kept as a standard in the care of the destitute. If we could only carry to the orphan and the friendless motherhood and fatherhood in their best forms, and do it early enough, there would be little pauperism and few asylums and houses of correction left. When we speak of pauper and dependent children, we mean that condition out of which true fatherhood and motherhood, friendship and guidance, have dropped. Is it not plain that, if the home influences that kind parental care is studious for so many years to provide were replaced whenever they are lacking, there would be little occasion for any other charity?

And it should be remembered that there are other ways by which children become virtually orphans than by the death of their parents; or, rather, there are deaths which come into a family far more dreadful than the undertaker hides. Men and women become morally dead by drink, licentiousness, crime, and other vicious ways, and then under their roofs the dreariest and worst orphanage begins.

Now, much is involved in restoring the influences of good homes and the customary helps of a pure childhood to those who have them not, and in doing this work promptly. A wealthy tax-payer once said to the promoters of such work among children: "I give you aid gladly, and consider it a good investment for my children. I would

rather give money to educate these little ones now than have my children taxed ten times as much by and by to support prisons and penitentiaries." This man was sagacious and far-seeing, for he had a vision of consequences.

It is quite the fashion of heedless people to point out how superior our civilization is to any which has gone before, because we have expensive and clean prisons instead of the horrible dungeons and Fleets and Newgates that distressed John Howard and Elizabeth Fry; because we legislate children out of almshouses to put them in asylums; because we have gigantic refuges to put boys and girls in who otherwise would be in jails; because any modern State can count its benevolent institutions and societies by the scores, and its charity contributions by the myriads of dollars. But a far grander standard of a noble age would consist in the utter demolition of prisons, of refuges, of protectories and asylums, of almshouses and soup-houses, and of all this sort of institutions, because society had grown so wise and good that there were in it no neglected children, no children destitute of wise and loving home influences.

And now, to turn to the sordid aspect of the question, think of the pecuniary saving involved. We call such questions sordid because they comprise considerations of money; but there is a higher view to take of financial phenomena. Money results often indicate great social laws, because in modern life we compute results economically, and a tangible measure of moral movements is often furnished in this way.

Suppose, then, that by taking parental care of children (I mean seeing that by placing them in suitable private families no little boy or girl is destitute of that natural and divinely appointed solicitude) we get rid of State and private institutions, what an immense annual saving it would be in New York City alone! The figures are difficult to get, because no careful rendering can be had. But we know the annual cost of city prisons and charities and of private asylums in that city is fully $10,000,000. If this sum were spent on the best methods of child education, it would take splendid care of fifty thousand little ones with the liberal expenditure of $200 apiece for them; and there could be no equally beneficent and promising product thrown on society.

Fifty thousand is named because the closest calculation that I have seen shows that to be the present number of dependent children in and out of institutions, under ten years of age, in that city. If we could do this thing well, it would save all other remedial work.

Outside of this calculation, notice the difference between a producer and a non-producer. The late Professor J. Thorold Rogers, the well-known English statistician, computed that an emigrant of the ordinary average of those who go from Great Britain to America represents in the labor market a capital of $750. This calculation, while it often breaks down individually, holds for the general result. Take this for the lowest standard of a man's value for productive purposes. It is 25 per cent. below what the price of slaves averaged in the days before the war. Now, every individual that passes out of productive life, at an average emigrant's age, represents $750 of capital destroyed.

But that is not all. If such a person die, that would end the loss; but "a back to warm and a stomach to feed" (as Professor Thompson so pithily puts it) remain, and a disordered brain to wait on both. This means keeping so much consumptive machinery alive to no purpose. Hence this at least doubles the loss, and so it is safe to say that every permanent dependant represents a total capital extinguished of $1,500; and on the basis of the census of 1880 it means that $105,000,000 is extinguished year by year out of the country's productive energy. Think what could be done with the interest on this vast sum if it were applied, not to alleviate misfortune, but to prevent it in childhood!

Within very large limits a man pays back to society, in an economical way, large and constant interest on the care and education bestowed upon him. And, on the other hand, society has to pay roundly for all its neglects of personal human souls.

The experience of the Children's Aid Society of Philadelphia, which finds homes in private families for every child which is physically and mentally sound which comes under its care, proves not only that this suggestion is easily practicable, but goes far to show that institutions for normal children are not only unnecessary, but of very questionable utility.

Think how families are built up, and then what superb possibilities would open if every dependent child could be part of a family, pervaded and actuated by a spirit of the truest God-fearing brotherhood. It is not the money which a father lays out on his children which makes them strong and influential, but it is the heart and mind which he has imparted to them.

We can control the pauperism of the future very largely in the same degree as we care for and mould the dependent children of to-day.

IX.

State Boards of Charities.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON STATE BOARDS OF CHARITIES.

BY HON. M. D. FOLLETT, OHIO, CHAIRMAN.

This theme is not new, yet to the inquiring and thoughtful philanthropist it cannot become old.

The Annual Reports of this Conference of Charities and Correction abound in gems of thought and heart upon this subject. Should these gems be newly cut and set, or gathered into one whole, they would not lose their value or power, but perchance would attract more attention and study, and bring forth additional action and wider benefits. Thoughtful attention, wise action, saving and elevating results are hoped for through the repeated labors and reports of this Conference. Whenever such labors and reports are rightly studied and heeded, they will lead to such results.

Were each man able and willing rightly to govern himself, we might not need prisons and reformatories; but, as men are now, a good government must have schools and asylums, prisons and reformatories, to protect civilized society and to aid in keeping right our homes. All agree that each State should have such for both sexes, and should provide means to secure the best results for itself and those placed therein. Such results can be secured only through the best human agencies.

To-day a State Board of Charities is the most advanced achievement of governmental philanthropy. Less than half the number of these United States has come up to such an attainment, though the States that have such Boards contain the majority of our people and the majority of institutions — the majority of men and the majority of women — seeking to lessen degradation, suffering, vice, and crime, who are laboring to uplift to nobler lives, purer homes, and better citizenship.

Some of us may live to see — in God's good time — a United States Board of Charities.

Obstacles and opposition have existed to such Boards, and renewed objection may be expected. I presume but one perfect man has ever lived, and you know how he was treated by men; yet his life and teachings are blessing even his enemies, and are helping to make his friends more godlike.

No high excellence is attained without correct and extensive knowledge, persevering vigilance, and intelligent use of the best means. With us in Ohio the State cares for the defective and the dependent classes, the insane, and the criminal classes. To a certain extent such persons are classified and placed under the charge of trustees and superintendents. These inmates require the entire time and thought of those having such charge. The wants of each class are different and need different treatment, yet the experience and results of the treatment of each keeper may help to instruct and assist every other keeper if rightly garnered and studied. Those experiences and lessons come from human souls acting out human nature, when placed in peculiar conditions.

The superintendent of each asylum, reformatory, or prison, may use — and perhaps must use — all his time, energies, and skill in the care, study, and improvement of those in his keeping. He should know the history, condition, peculiarities, and individual needs of all inmates. He watches and studies each one; and he notes what effect upon the body and upon the mind have the personal treatment and the environment of each, so that he may better know what most tends to produce desired results. He seeks the experience and advice of those engaged in like occupation, and he uses all these in perfecting his own plans and methods. And, while the mind and time of such superintendent are occupied in his peculiar work, he cannot personally impart his experience and skill to other institutions like or unlike his own.

I think that a careful study and comparison of the individual experience, skill, and success of the several superintendents and persons who have accomplished most good in such institutions and work, at any time or place, show that each one is peculiar in his principles and methods, that no two have been just alike, and that no one can be exactly copied or followed with equal success. Yet nothing need be lost. Experience that has cost so much should not be forgotten. To a great extent the skill of the best may be acquired and improved upon. The principles of human nature, of physical, mental, and moral improvement, may be learned and become more thoroughly understood and put into active and successful practice.

The more we study and learn, the more we are conscious that perfection in knowledge of either physical, mental, moral, or criminal disease or cure has rarely been attained. We may treasure up the attainments of the past, and go on unto perfection. Through hope we have assurance of greater success in dealing with physical and mental diseases, and also with moral degradation, crimes, and criminals. We look for sane minds in sound bodies with the coming men and the coming women.

State Boards of Charities should inspect all charitable and correctional institutions of the State; and they should know all that need be remedied, as well as the means suitable and sufficient to bring and retain desired results. The methods and success in each individual institution should be well known and understood by other like institutions, and by the public. If wrong or defects exist, they must be known, to be properly dealt with. If there are superior skill, excellences, and success, they should be known to all, that they may be duly rewarded and more extensively studied and applied.

When all this must be done, pray tell me what officer of the State will assume the task. I think you can find no one ready to do it who understands what should be done. The wayward and the incorrigible are to be governed and reformed; the imbecile is to be instructed and taught; the insane and madly-wild are to be clothed and made to become calm and of a right mind. To the blind must be given sight or some substitute. If the deaf and dumb cannot be made to hear and speak, the best equivalent must be provided. The criminal, when convicted and in prison, is to be controlled, changed from his former self, educated physically, mentally, and morally, and made to become a useful member of the State. And, when all this cannot be done, there should be some officer or body of men who are able to advise and direct as to what is best to be done. For this work we require the knowledge, patience, energies, sound judgment, and wisdom of more than *one* finite being. We need the best men that can be found, — men able to use much time in such work, men of the highest ability and education, of stern Christian integrity, who will zealously labor for the highest good of mankind. They should widely investigate and rightly learn and codify the best practical deductions from the best experience and teachings of the past and present that may secure the best results. And all this is to be done not by official dictation, but by and with moral force,— earnest and accurate instruction, stern and just rebukes, and faithful and wise advice, given privately and publicly.

This requires not only rare knowledge, ability, and qualities, but also a rare combination of abilities and qualities. Such men, striving to fulfil all these tasks to reach such ends, are exceedingly rare; and yet they may be found. From what I have seen and heard — from what I thus know — I feel warranted in affirming that in this broad land there are some such, and that some of them are of those who compose our State Boards of Charities. These Boards are organized for such a purpose, and they labor with zeal to accomplish better and nobler results.

Your former reports upon these Boards have shown their organization and their history. Such organized work has increased many-fold the effective results of charitable and reformatory labor; and when every State has a properly organized Board of Charities, sustained by the people, the legislature, and the officers of the State, as well as by the superintendents of each asylum, reformatory, and prison, there will be still greater increase of effective results in saving power and in restoring to worthy and enlightened manhood.

The history of State Boards of Charities goes back but twenty-eight years. Massachusetts claims some such Board since 1863. Ohio and New York Boards count 1867 as their origin. The Boards of Illinois, North Carolina, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island, began in 1869; and those of Michigan and Wisconsin started in 1871; and those of Connecticut and Kansas began in 1873. In 1882 Minnesota had her first Board, and New Jersey had her first in 1883. The First Report of the State Board of Charities of Indiana informs us: —

"The Board of State Charities was appointed by the Governor, by authority of an Act of the legislature, which was approved Feb. 28, 1889. The members met with the Governor, who is by law *ex-officio* President, in the Governor's room, in the capitol building, March 16, 1889, at 2 o'clock P.M. The members presented their certificates of appointment, which bore date March 1, 1889, and were for terms of years, as follows: For three years, Mrs. E. W. Fairbanks and Oscar C. McCulloch. For two years, Mrs. Margaret F. Peelle and E. B. Martindale. For one year, John R. Elder and Timothy Nicholson. The members, being all present, were then qualified and took the oath of office, which was endorsed on their certificates." This Board, so organized with such material, was a veteran at its birth, and full armed with powers, like Minerva. Their First Report shows what a grand work they have done, and that they have placed Indiana abreast of the "Royal Guards." South Dakota, Oregon, Colorado,

and Wyoming bring up the rear, but they are pressing to the front. May every State soon be so favored!

All the State Boards of Charities have not enjoyed continued favor, nor even continued life. Some have been suppressed, and then have been re-established with new vigor. But lately one or two State Boards have been threatened, and their life seemed nearly extinct. To such Boards and their members we may say: Hope and work on. Your labors must enlighten and triumph.

The work and value of State Boards of Charities are not clearly known and understood, and no short history or brief description can fully show their worth and work or what they have accomplished. They are held in highest esteem wherever their organization, their purposes, and the results of their work are best known. They have already diffused much light, given valuable information, sought out and put in order fundamental principles of human nature,— those that relate to the physical and those that relate to the mental and moral,— and have shown how improvement and reforms may be secured!

The mysterious union of body and soul no man can comprehend, much less understand and define how each limits and controls the other. The problems these Boards deal with are most profound and involved; yet by wide induction and careful comparison and study they have done much in securing important cures and reforms, and they have greatly aided in extending private and public information and scientific knowledge and truth relating to social economics, and they are showing more fully how the public prosperity and life are bound up in the same, and require vigorous patriotic and philanthropic action.

The educated are becoming more deeply interested. The philanthropist, the lawyer and statesman, the divine and theologian, the physician, the scientist, and the practical governor are all seeking more knowledge of the defective, the dependent, and the criminal classes; and many are asking, What can be done to correct and save them? and, Can we prevent the young and thoughtless from joining such classes? and, How can we best stop deformity, moral corruption, and crime, and preserve a sound and enlightened and morally virtuous community?

Some have denied that a degenerate and brutal man can be lifted up and purified; while others affirm that "it is the glory of our faith that it can take a soul from any stratum of human society and lift it

Godward." From experience and facts at home and abroad, we can no longer doubt that man is capable of being lifted up and regenerated; and he may become loyal to truth, morality, amd good government.

In this is our only hope. Would we preserve the best, we cannot permit the vicious and bad to go on increasing and poisoning. We must reclaim and purify the vicious and criminal, or permanently separate them from a free community.

At Harvard University for several years they have taught social economics and ethics; at the University of Pennsylvania and Johns Hopkins University the students are taught in the same and kindred subjects; and at the Theological Seminaries of Andover, Hartford, and New York they are giving courses of instruction in the same branches, including "The Social Evolution of Labor," "The Treatment of Crime and of the Criminal Classes," and "Pauperism." And for the young women at Wellesley College there is now established a scientific course on "Domestic Economy." The officers of the Ohio State University — and perhaps those of other universities and colleges — are moving, and hope soon to have like instruction and investigation. For some years the American Bar Association has been considering many of the social problems, and has been calling attention to defects in the criminal laws and the practice in trial courts. These strong lights shining from such heights show that darkness is breaking and a brighter day is coming. All are seeking a better solution of these vital questions; and where should any look with more hope of light, aid, and success than to the work and the reports of the various State Boards of Charities? Here we may expect increasing light.

Every State Board of Charities should be permanent, intelligent, and zealous. Each should know and avoid defects and plans and methods that have not been successful. They should also understand the necessities of every class and institution, as well as the excellences of each principle and system of treatment and reform. Then each board can and should advise and direct such plans, systems, work, and laws as will secure the most beneficial results to every class in all institutions.

Legislation, good laws with ample support, will keep pace with advanced thought and investigation, securing public knowledge, approval, and demands. But recently the New York legislature has passed a law removing the insane from their poorhouses, and also a

law making *imperative* the employment of women in police stations in all cities containing 25,000 or more inhabitants.

Local politicians do not spend their means or labor in securing mere benevolent ends or the reformation of criminals. Partisan zeal is not exhausted in lifting up the helpless and fallen, or in pouring out oil and wine to heal the wounds of the afflicted. We cannot rely upon such men to advance our cause. But those who make our laws will listen to State Boards of Charities, which may greatly aid in proper legislation.

When State Boards of Charities are opposed for a valid cause, they will patiently listen to the presentation of the defect or mistake, and will seek to remove the same. But, when they are opposed for an invalid objection, they may show the opposer their last report, and demand an honest examination of the same; and, pointing to their work and its success, like Cornelia they may say, "These are my jewels." Is not the objector entitled to a test of results? If any principle or plan or result cannot endure the light and the most searching investigation, let such be abandoned and a better one adopted. Intelligent and honest examination and criticism are the very object and life of publicity in philanthropic work. The more we have of such examination and criticism, the more perfect and enduring will be that which survives. The opposer should present something better, or cease his opposition.

False theories and wrong practices may gain a temporary ascendency, and the true and right and the true-hearted may be pushed aside and abashed for a time; but who can doubt that in the end "the fittest will survive," and thus greater progress will be made? True and enduring progress is sought to be secured by every State Board of Charities, and they will utilize what can give the noblest results.

Individual effort has accomplished much, and may lead investigation and discovery; but how feeble is the individual compared with the strength of organized bodies! While one may chase a thousand, two can put ten thousand to flight. And when strong men are banded together in a righteous cause, and are sustained and pushed forward by the power of the State, they become almost invincible. Such a body of zealous workers, putting forth permanent and continued efforts to improve, reform, and uplift, must accomplish untold results in reclaiming and saving the fallen, the degraded, and the criminal, and in restoring to truer manhood and to correct and useful lives.

State Boards of Charities, in addition to their many other excellences and virtues, should have the "power of an endless life." No patronage clings to a State Board of Charities, and no salary or compensation should be given to the members of such a board. Other and higher motives induce to accept such membership and to labor in performing its arduous duties. No poorer pay was ever offered, and no nobler work has ever occupied human effort. The unworthy will not seek such membership, and will prefer not to retain it if perchance it has been given. If doubt of the truth of this statement lingers in the mind of any sceptic, let him read and study the reports of such Boards and their work, and find out the truth for himself, and then confess his true convictions.

I have never been a member of such a board, and I have not been connected with a State Board of Charities; but I have known the members of such Boards and their characters. I have known their motives as such members, and their arduous and anxious labors; and to some extent I have known the successful results of their plans and of their work. Year after year I learn with increasing interest their aims, their tasks, their hopes, and their successes. I have listened to possibilities attainable, if they are aided and sustained as they may be. I believe that every State should have an efficient Board of State Charities. Each State needs their wise investigations, suggestions, and advice, and their practical and economical and prudent guidance, and the inspiration of their elevating and saving philanthropy.

Whenever a new Board of State Charities is formed, it may profit by the experience, the failures, and the successes of previous Boards. The last organized Board adopting the best plans, principles, and service, may be in advance in the use of the best known means. But it takes time to put new agents and methods into the best working condition; and the State, being tardy in action, cannot have a full harvest until appliances and good work secure the best results.

I presume that no plan or system or service is yet perfect, so that each State needs the active co-operation and assistance of every other State, Board and individual. The work is great and difficult, yet hopeful. Though it may be, as is claimed, "that nearly 200,000 immigrants are every year taken into American communities who are neither mentally nor morally qualified to perform their part," and that "the assumption of such a burden is too great for even an aggressive and growing community like our own," and that "of these

objectionable immigrants no small portion are outlaws and criminals," yet the United States seems to be behind some other nations in efficient results of preventive, curative, correctional, and saving work, when they should be in the advance. Our reformatories and prisons have not become less in number or much less crowded. Is not this due, to some extent at least, if not very largely, to the absence of better aid to discharged prisoners, and because the several States have not more fully and efficiently organized, equipped, and sustained State Boards of Charities? It must yet be that "in one strong race all races here unite." Then may we prove to be true the statement of Dr. Brownson,—that "the American civilization is the highest civilization that the world has ever seen, and comes nearer to the realization of the Catholic idea,"—as well as the truth of the words of Lafayette to Henry Clay,—that: "the United States reflected on every part of the world the light of a far superior civilization."

A BOARD OF STATE CHARITIES: HOW IT LOOKS TO A NEW MEMBER.

BY HON. JOHN R. ELDER, INDIANAPOLIS.

I had never taken an active part in charities; and I suppose I knew no more on those subjects than the average citizen, who occasionally contributes a small amount, reads all that comes in his way in the papers and occasional reports, and is willing to let those that have a tender and sympathetic feeling for suffering humanity do the work. I did not even know a law had been passed by the legislature to authorize the appointment of a State Board when I was asked by a friend of the governor if I would accept the appointment as a member. I was not allowed to decline, but persuaded to read the law and have a talk with the governor before doing so. After carefully reading the law and having a friendly talk with the governor, who explained the duties of the Board, the great importance to the public institutions, the power granted the Board to oversee and correct abuses,—in fact, there were no shadows, in the picture presented,—and learning that my associates on the Board were ladies and gentlemen with whom it would be a credit and honor to

be associated, especially remembering that there was no compensation in the office, and as I had the time to spare, I decided to accept the position. I have never regretted that I did so.

You veterans in the work have forgotten how it would look to a new member when he realizes for the first time that it is his duty to investigate and overlook the whole system of public charities and correctional institutions of a State, and that the great State of Indiana, that has been so liberal in providing for her dependants. I soon found that I had been looking at this whole system through the large end of the telescope,— that they were small objects, and a long way off. But now, when I turned the telescope and looked through the other end, how large they were, how near, what immense interests they were! The more I examined, the larger and more important they grew. I also found that, while we had a supervisory oversight and could demand information, we had no controlling power. We might see wrongs, but were powerless to correct them. Here, I thought, is a weakness in the law. Why appoint men to oversee and supervise, and then withhold the power necessary to enforce corrections and changes? This looked like pelting the boy in the apple-tree with grass. I have, however, changed my mind on this subject. This apparent weakness is the great strength and power of the Board. Public opinion is stronger, and harder to declare unconstitutional, than many of our laws. The press is mightier, and can more certainly correct a public wrong, than any court, where the law and the facts are to be determined by an ordinary jury. As there is neither money nor politics in the Board, we are supposed to be without prejudice, and to look only for the good of the public and our wards. We have found an able and powerful ally in the press, ever ready to right a wrong or correct an abuse, and especially where the wrong or abuse is against the helpless and defenceless wards of the State. So far the press has given us all the aid we could ask, and we have all the power we ought to have.

The Board held its first meeting. I then found we had a veteran among us, one that knew all about charities and charity organizations from long experience. Two other members of the Board had been active in public charities for years. This was a great consolation to the new recruits. If we could only keep quiet, and follow the leaders, we would get along. The first thing to do was to get a secretary. This was not easy, as we wanted a man that would do all the work and let us get all the honor and glory. Our veteran

thought he knew the man. We sent for him to another State, to report for inspection. He came. We examined him physically, morally, religiously, socially, and took a Bertillon measurement of him. He passed, was elected for good behavior or life, and now we have and will hold him until pardoned out by the governor or stolen by some other State. But we have his measure; and, if he escapes from us, we will know the why and the wherefore.

Now we were ready for the real work of the Board. The first thing was to get acquainted with the trustees, officers, and subordinates of the different institutions of the State. To do this, we organized a series of visits, as far as possible by the whole Board, and, when that was not practicable, by committees. And here is where I began to see and appreciate for the first time how the charities of this great State grew in fulness and clearness, how one institution was connected with another, until the whole appeared, though still with some deficiencies, a wise and systematic care of the helpless and the weak. The State protects and shelters the feeble and wayward children, while insisting that the strong and robust shall care for themselves. With that idea came the theory of the Board of State Charities, as the adviser and counsellor of all,— not the master nor the fault-finder, but the instructor and friendly adviser and helper, watching for the weak links in the chain, suggesting to the institutions new or improved methods, to the legislature better laws, to the general public better temper and patience, to the politicians better and wiser policy.

In our visits, both to the State and county institutions, we met a cordial reception. Everything was open to our inspections and examinations, and aid in investigations was cheerfully given. No door was locked, nothing covered up. It was our aim to impress the gentlemen in charge of our institutions that we were their friends; that we wanted to aid them in all things by advice and counsel, to advance and better the institutions in their charge; that we would uphold them in all that was right, and, if we saw where changes could be made for the better, we would point them out with the kindest feelings and intentions. At the same time we were watchful of the interests of the wards and tax-payers of the State, so that they should be well guarded.

There are ninety-two counties in the State, each having a jail and poorhouse, and over thirty of them having orphans' homes. As it was impossible to give each county the special attention it might

require, we published and distributed pamphlets on "Construction and Management of a County Jail" and on the "Management of a County Poor Asylum." We contemplate publishing others, on "County Orphans' Homes" and on the "Township Trustees' Relief."

Our visits to the great institutions of the State, including the State prisons, the reform schools for girls and boys, the insane hospitals, the Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home, the Home for the Feeble-minded, the institutions for the deaf, dumb, and blind, were pleasant and profitable. The trustees and superintendents in every case received us kindly, explained fully the working of their different institutions, received any suggestions we made in the best feeling, and, if they were thought to be for the good of their charges, adopted them.

It was in some of the county poorhouses that we found the greatest need for reform; and here some grave abuses were corrected, under the influence of the Board. I cannot pass this point without mentioning how ably Dr. Wright, of the Central Hospital, seconded our efforts to get proper care for the insane who were in the county poor houses, making room for all the worst cases, and redeeming the State from the disgrace of neglect and cruelty to these poor helpless creatures. Beyond all question, the poor of the counties are better cared for to-day than they were two years ago. And the improvement is still going on.

The jails of the State required special attention. In one county our secretary found a jail in a miserable sanitary condition. On his calling the attention of the county commissioners to it, they concluded to build a new one. The plans they adopted we found so well suited to the purpose that we published them in our report as plans for a model jail. In our own county of Marion, through the influence of our Board, aided by the press and a strong public sentiment, the legislature passed a law to enable the commissioners to build a jail; and they, with our secretary, have been inspecting jails in several States, with the view of adopting plans fully up to the advanced idea of the times in caring for prisoners. I confidently believe Marion County will soon have a jail equal to any in the country, and one that we can all point to with pride.

To show the work of our Board, I invite you to visit our office, in the best built State House in the Union. We are yet young; but we have a Bureau of Information concerning charities and corrections, classified, and accessible to all. All reports of our State institutions are filed, and information of every kind is available. There is a reg-

istration by name as well as number of all the insane in the State and of all the paupers in the county asylums; the name and address of every township trustee in the State who dispenses relief to the poor; the name and address of every sheriff and keeper of the poor-houses. This registration will be extended until all the defectives, dependants, and delinquents shall be known, with actual facts in each case, from which valuable statistics can be compiled. Our financial reports, issued quarterly, with a classified comparative summary in detail, give the institution people a basis of comparison of what they are doing with what others are doing. We have also a general Bureau of Information on matters outside the State, so filed and classified that it is accessible, not only to us, but to any one seeking knowledge on those points. If there are statistics or facts that will aid us in the great work of bettering the condition of the unfortunate wards of the State, we intend to get them, and keep them accessible to all.

On a visit to Wisconsin, by invitation of the Board of that State, I learned how they care for their insane. That was a new development to me,—to see one hundred insane people in one building, men and women, taken from the poorhouses and State hospitals, in charge of one male and one female superintendent, doing all the work of the house and a large farm, with no doors locked, no resident physician in the house, coming and going as they pleased, contented, and as happy as they could be in their condition. I saw a number of such places, county insane asylums. Wisconsin has accomplished what other States must do. More than half the present inmates in our State hospitals could be cared for in this way,—better for the harmless insane, much better and cheaper for the State.

X.

Public Charities in Europe.

AN ADDRESS GIVEN BEFORE THE CONFERENCE ON SUNDAY NIGHT, MAY 17.

BY F. B. SANBORN.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen,— The topic assigned to me, by your favor, is so large and so varied in its features that I must confine myself chiefly to a few points. With respect to these I shall speak mainly from observations made during my visit to Europe in 1890, concerning which some remarks of mine found a place in the Proceedings of the Baltimore Conference. I therein considered the question of Indoor and Outdoor Relief, using those terms as they are understood in England. On that particular question I have now little to say except this: that, though the abuses of public outdoor relief are as well known and as much lamented in Europe as they can be in America, yet no country there seriously proposes to give up the principle, which, in fact, lies at the basis of all public and private charity everywhere. It may not be difficult for persons of an imaginative and theoretic turn of mind to frame a vision of some ideal community where all public charity shall be dealt out to the poor and the vicious by faultless official persons, governing poorhouses, infirmaries, hospitals, workhouses, foundling asylums, etc.; but no such community exists at present, and I did not happen to meet in Europe any persons who applauded such a disposal of the funds there distributed in aid of the poor. On the contrary, the tendency in most countries is to separate the poor instead of aggregating them, to keep them or to place them in families rather than in great pauper establishments, — and particularly to do this with respect to children from infancy upward and with the chronic insane poor.

In France, as is well known, the "workhouse test" is practically unheard of. The French system proceeds upon the opposite theory,— not that as many persons as possible must be sent into the public in-

stitutions, but as many as possible be kept out of them. In the little kingdom of Greece there is absolutely no system of indoor relief. There is a population of about two millions, and not a single public establishment which is maintained at the expense of the tax-payers for the reception and residence of any number of the public poor. There are hospitals, orphan asylums, two insane asylums, a sort of almshouse, but none of these are maintained by the government; and it is not the wish of the contributors to these charities that the government should contribute materially to their support, if thereby the government could interfere with their management. The public contributions do not exceed $100,000 a year; while in Massachusetts, with about the same population, we expend upward of $2,000,000 drawn from the public treasury for the support of the poor, dependent, and the deficient of one sort and another.

Two countries of Europe, of which in matters of public charity we are apt to hear very little in this country,— Belgium and Scotland,— have introduced systems of management which deserve especial notice. Belgium has made a great effort to overcome the chronic evil of vagrancy, which is more troublesome in the dense populations of Europe than it is even with us; and it has had measurably good success in this effort. At Merxplas, a country town in the midst of that formerly barren region north-east of Antwerp called the Campine, is a very large and well-managed colony for vagrants, which has lately been visited and described by M. le Pasteur Robin, an eminent French philanthropist. I will make use of his account, supplementing it with some remarks of my own.

The Campine in which Merxplas is situated, not far from the northern frontier of Belgium, is a wild and, till within seventy years, uncultivated district about twenty miles from Antwerp, on one edge of which is the famous village of Gheel. Merxplas is about twenty miles north of Gheel, and quite near the old city of Turnhout, where travellers sometimes go to see the fine old church of Notre Dame, with its tombs of Charles the Bold and his daughter Mary, who was the mother of Charles V., the famous emperor. Merxplas was the seat of a colony of vagrants seventy years ago, under the King of the Netherlands; but this fell into disorder after Belgium became a separate kingdom in 1831, and was given up. It was organized as a government establishment in 1862, has grown very much since then, and now has a capacity for four thousand persons,— nearly four times as large, that is, as the State Almshouse at Tewksbury, and

more capacious than was the Blockley Almshouse of Philadelphia, in its best estate. The farm on which this colony has been established contains 1,200 hectares (about 3,000 acres), and was bought, with the buildings then upon it, in 1862, for $160,000. The appropriations since made have been $150,000 for buildings; but the value of this farm and buildings is now estimated at $717,000. This added value of $407,000 has come from the labor of the inmates during a period of something more than twenty years. I suppose the average number of inmates during that period has been about 2,000, though it is now 3,000. They are of several classes,— men, women, and children, sick and well, sentenced persons and volunteers; but all are compelled to labor, when their health permits. The one condition of their reception is that they shall be found begging, or that they make application with a permit from the local authorities of the place where they live. In this respect the Merxplas Colony resembles the two Massachusetts establishments of Tewksbury and Bridgewater, except that it is three times as large in area as the two, and has more than twice as many inmates. The main buildings are grouped near the centre of this great tract, and cover a space nearly a third of a mile long and a quarter of a mile wide. About a thousand feet distant from the nearest part of this central structure are the farm buildings, where stock to the value of nearly $20,000 is kept. Half a mile from the farm are extensive brick-yards, out of which have come the bricks for all these colony buildings, and where also pottery is extensively made. But the chief work of the inmates is on the land or in workshops of all sorts, which are included in the enclosure of the central buildings. Blacksmiths, wheelwrights, carpenters, and mechanics of many trades are here instructed and employed; and the labor of these and of the farm hands does much to pay the cost of supporting the whole establishment.

Similar to this gigantic Belgium tramp colony, and some of them not very far off, are the so-called *Labor Colonies* of Germany, twenty-four in number, which have grown up in the past nine years under the direction of Pastor von Bodelschwingh of Bielefeld, a very eminent German philanthropist. The first of these was opened at Wilhelmsdorf, near Bielefeld, in Westphalia, in August, 1882. Since then twenty-three other colonies have been opened in different parts of Northern and Central Germany, whose united population at the end of January, 1891, was 2,731, but which had received in eight and one-half years 43,792 inmates. It will be seen that these

are much smaller establishments than the great Belgium one, since they average less than 120 inmates. They are also differently supported and managed, and receive a more select class of vagrants; but their general purpose is the same as that of the Merxplas Colony, and, like that, they have done something to check the evils of tramp life in the countries where they exist.

The arrangement of the German labor colonies is quite unlike that of those in Belgium. Germany is divided into provinces, governments, and circuits, the last named being the smallest political division, and the "government" standing between a local circuit and a province, like Brandenburg. Every circuit maintains a "Station Almshouse" for the poor wayfarer; every government maintains a House of Correction; and there are many "Family Inns," maintained chiefly by private charity. These inns (the German phrase is *Herberge zur Heimath*) answer the purpose of lodging-houses for the poor, and are so placed as to be not more than half a day's walk from the station almshouses, which are found in every circuit, and are supported by the tax-payers. The board that manages these almshouses is required to find, if possible, employment at wages for all those who lodge there; while the inns, which are temperance taverns, give accommodation at a small price to all wayfarers. Wherever the station almshouse, or Wayfarer's Lodge, is not provided, as it often is, with a workshop or labor yard, then the neighboring inn establishes one; the object being in these two institutions to see that no poor wanderer lacks food or lodging in a good place, and that temporary work shall be provided for him. Both are under government direction, as everything must be in Germany; and this is the arrangement which the authorities have devised: —

Every man visiting an inn or a station almshouse, when he has paid two cents (everything is cheap in Germany) or done two cents worth of labor, is provided with a travelling certificate (*Wanderschein*), containing one hundred coupons, or blank squares. When he reaches his next resting-place, he must produce this, and show the place and date of his last lodging stamped thereon, without which he cannot usually gain admission. To prevent him from idling or begging on his way, he is required to apply for admission before an hour fixed; for in every one of these lodging-houses men are required to set forth in the morning at a fixed hour. Every man who cannot pay for his lodging must spend nine hours in travelling

between stations or in working at one, to pay for his food and lodging. Thus you see that tramping in Germany, like everything else there, has its laws and regulations. Now, it often happens that neither the private inn nor the public station almshouse can find work at fair wages for all their visitors; and it is to meet this want, as well as to have an establishment of a more permanent character, that Pastor Bodelschwingh ten years ago devised, and nine years ago set up, the first "Labor Colony," seven miles outside the town of Bielefeld where he lived. He purchased a farm-house and some acres of wild land — something like the Belgian Campine — in a retired place, but not far from two churches, Protestant and Catholic; and, to pay for it, he secured a loan, without interest, from the provincial authorities, of ten thousand dollars. Eight years after (in 1889) he had so enlarged his original purchase that he had a thousand acres, which with the buildings had cost him $30,000. He had previously established a training school at Bielefeld for deacons and deaconesses; and at the head of his new colony he placed a deacon of his own training, who had studied agriculture and was a practical farmer. He then gave out word far and wide that food, board, and moderate pay would be given to any man who would work under his regulations. These were that each colonist must remain three or four months, and might stay two years; during the first fortnight a man is supposed to be learning his work; after that time he is credited with five cents a day, but receives no cash. There is a country store on the estate where each workman can buy what he likes as long as his book shows a credit due him; and, when he goes away, the balance remaining is paid over to him.

The wild land at Wilhelmsdorf has now been cleared up and is traversed by good roads. The buildings of the colony resemble the country poorhouses of the better class in America. They have room for 200 inmates, and can receive, if necessary, 400 or 500. Nobody there can escape work: those who cannot do field work have house occupations, and the very feeble are made to pare potatoes, shell peas, take care of rooms, etc. The live stock kept on the farm number several hundred,— about a dozen horses, 40 cows, oxen, and calves, 130 sheep, and 80 pigs; and these furnish so much manure that 200 acres out of the 1,000 are under cultivation or have been planted. The Earl of Meath, who visited this colony in October, 1890, says: —

The colonists consist of almost all classes. When I visited them in October last, I found several who had received a university education, including a theological graduate. It is marvellous with what ease the two hundred men I found in the colony seem to be managed, especially when we remember the usual characteristics of the tramping community. And our astonishment increases when we are told that about half of this number have, at some time or another, received correction at the hands of the magistrates. In this institution punishments are unknown. Serious warnings and reprimand and, if these do not answer, dismissal are the only means of maintaining discipline. The cost of the establishment amounted in 1888 to 3,011 pounds sterling per annum, while the expense of maintaining each colonist per day was 53½ pfennigs, or about 6*d.* per day per head. For this sum coffee and bread and butter are given at 5 A.M., bread and butter at 8.30 A.M., thick soup (or meat two days in the week) at noon, coffee and bread and butter at 3.30 P.M., and soup with bread and potatoes at 6.30 P.M.

The cost per inmate, reckoned in our currency, was therefore less than $1.00 a week, probably something more than this when salaries and extraordinary expenses are taken into the account. The cost of a similar establishment in the city of Berlin ought to be rather greater than this; but the market for the products of labor is so much better in that city that the cost there appears to be about the same. The income at the Berlin Colony from the sale of articles manufactured was in 1889 nearly $12,000, the whole expense of the establishment being less than $40,000. Both at Berlin and at Wilhelmsdorf active industry or employment of some kind is the rule. "Pray and work" is the motto of the colony. No one is allowed to idle: each hour is marked out for work, prayer, sleep, and refreshment of body and mind. Pastor von Bodelschwingh is of the opinion that, if he does not fill up every hour with wholesome work or needful refreshment, the devil will find occupation for idle hands and brains. No one who enters the colony can escape work.

According to official authority, permanent situations are obtained in these labor colonies for about fifteen per cent. of the inmates; and a quarter part of those who go out are known to be doing well. Only about one in twenty turn out to be incorrigible vagrants, and are handed over to the police. Vagrancy has been checked, but by no means exterminated by these twenty-four establishments in city and country throughout Germany. The same must be said of the Belgian provision for housing and punishing tramps. It works well, but has not cured the evil. The government is now seeking both in Belgium

and Germany to correct defects in the two systems, and to bring public and private charities and prison restraint into more systematic co-operation each with the other. This must be done in any country, and needs to be done in the United States as much as anywhere, although the evils from which we suffer are by no means so great as those which I saw, and of which we so constantly hear, in Europe.

I wish particularly to address the Conference on a subject little known in this country,— the provision made by the national governments of Belgium and of Scotland for the family care of insane persons. I gave much attention to this matter while in those two countries last year, and became satisfied that the experience acquired there will be very useful to the people of the United States. The Scotch and Belgian systems can be introduced without much difficulty in any Northern States with which I am acquainted; and some progress has been made in Massachusetts, and I believe in Wisconsin, toward the establishment of this peculiar method of State care for the insane. The best American account of the Belgian Colony of Gheel, as it was half a dozen years ago, is in Mr. W. P. Letchworth's invaluable work, "The Insane in Foreign Countries." But I shall speak of it with its later improvements, as I saw it last summer.

For very many years the Belgians had been in the habit of carrying their insane or epileptic relatives to the sanctuary of St. Dymphna, a fabulous Irish princess, martyred near Gheel in Belgium, and gifted after death with the power of casting out devils. Around her church at Gheel grew up a village, now containing some ten thousand people, in which, by custom, the insane were boarded and employed by the villagers and peasants. When, some half-century ago, the general care of the insane of Belgium had so far improved as to suggest the need of government regulation of this strange community, the authorities of the little kingdom took the matter in hand, and have now, step by step, brought this "city of the simple" into the form of a well-directed colony of the insane. I visited it twice in 1890,— on a cold and wet day of February and on a beautiful June afternoon; and I found it, as Sir Arthur Mitchell, of Edinburgh, afterward told me he had found it, in much better condition than the superintendents of close asylums for the insane have generally been willing to allow. The number of patients sent in from all parts of Belgium, and even from Holland and other European countries, is now about 1,900, and it is yearly increasing. Of these, less than seventy are in the small and well-managed hospital where Dr. Peeters, the director, lives, and

supervises both the *internes* and *externes* of the hospital. The title of the whole establishment is the Colony of Gheel; and it must receive from the villages and country towns and cities of Belgium, as well as from the close asylums, all those insane persons, whether chronic or acute cases, whom the local authorities choose to send thither. Consequently, it has received many patients, epileptics and others, who ought not to be sent, but should be kept in special asylums. Ultimately, Dr. Peeters, the director of the colony,* hopes to acquire the power of selecting his cases, to a certain extent; and this power alone, judiciously exercised, would remove most of the faults which are now noticeable in the institution. Dr. Peeters, in a paper which he sent to the Philanthropic Congress at Paris in 1889, shows how this would be. He says:—

At present the selection of our patients is necessarily made outside of Gheel,—either by the town authorities, the hospital boards, the city and country doctors, or very often by the asylum physicians. The town and hospital authorities do not inquire whether such and such a patient is suitable for Gheel, or whether he would not be better placed in a close asylum. Besides, they are incompetent to give such an opinion. The practising physicians are generally almost as incompetent,—a fact which results from the lack of a complete system of instruction covering insanity in Belgium. Of our four universities, only two, at Brussels and Louvain, give a special course of this kind. And, while many foreign physicians come from all parts of the world to observe at Gheel our system of household care for the insane in its daily workings, the Belgian physicians seldom come; and I have met several who were much astonished to learn that there are insane persons living at Gheel in freedom in households. The asylum physicians, on the contrary, might, if they chose, indicate which of their patients no longer need asylum restraint, and are suitable for Gheel. But such patients are quite often doing useful work, they aid in the discipline of the asylum, and so they are not voluntarily sent away. Hence it happens that the selection of our patients is not well made even at the asylums. Under such conditions, patients are sent here who are incapable of enjoying freedom in family life; and, when we wish to relieve ourselves of this hurtful element, we are told there is no place for them in the close asylums, which are overcrowded. Yet nothing would be easier than to have no crowded asylums in all Belgium. Let us suppose that we now receive fifty patients who ought not to come; in exchange for these, whom we should turn over to the

* Dr. Peeters is a native of Gheel, and has been for seventeen years connected with the colony, of which he is now director. The late Dr. Nichols, of the Bloomingdale Asylum in New York, who visited Gheel in 1889, praises Dr. Peeters, and says of the boarding-out system, "In none of the houses visited did I see any evidence of neglect or discomfort for the class of patients under care." Ordinarily, only two patients of one sex are intrusted to the care of one family, and the patients and the family are required to take the same food at the same table.

asylums, they could send us at least a hundred, whose discharge would stop overcrowding, and permit the admission to the asylums of recent cases, needing special treatment and strict oversight. And these exchanges could be made periodically, to the great advantage of our colony, of the asylums, and of the patients themselves; for then every insane person would find his best place, now in a family, now in a close asylum.

This is a good statement of the existing difficulties in the treatment of the insane, not only in Belgium, but in the United States, where we have the same evils of overcrowded asylums, want of classification and selection, lack of knowledge by physicians, etc. Dr. Peeters could not have more sagaciously pointed out the remedy; and he is clear, as I am, that it is a great improvement everywhere to introduce, on a liberal scale, the Belgian and the Scotch method of family care for the insane. But to return to the present condition of Gheel. There are this year, as I said, 1,900 insane persons there,— 900 men and 1,000 women, of whom 100 are able to pay board, the rest being paupers. Only 75, of whom 40 are women, are in the close asylum, or central hospital; and consequently 1,825 are in families, and never more than two in one household. Of the whole number, not less than 200 are epileptics,— that troublesome and dangerous class; 450 are idiots and imbeciles, many of them lame, paralyzed, blind, or deaf; the other 1,250 are in various phases of insanity, strictly speaking: in dementia, 350; in mania or delirious insanity, 450; in melancholia, 250; and the rest in special forms of this malady. The admissions each year are about 300, so that more than 2,000 different persons come under care in course of a year. Of these about 40 are recovered, and from 100 to 130 die every year,— the percentage of mortality being rather low (as these cases are all supposed to be chronic, recoveries *must* be few). The village and its vicinity are free from all disorders. There are no fires set by the insane, no homicides committed by them, few suicides, and few occasions for subjecting them to restraint. In fact, a stranger not familiar with the insane would hardly suspect their presence in the village, although every other family has at least one inmate.

I went through this village the last Sunday in June, 1890, as I had done on a week-day in February, and was struck with the general excellence of the cheap provision made for the poor insane. We entered nearly twenty of the cabins, tenement houses, and farm cottages of the village and the adjacent country, with no previous notice

that we were coming; and we often found the tiled and thatched homesteads as interesting within as without. Everywhere the floors were of red brick tiles, neatly laid, sometimes in fancy patterns of flowers or figures; and there was usually a high mantel-piece, finished off with a frill of bright calico, on which were standing plates and brass candlesticks. Just below these were the brass skimmers and other cooking utensils, hanging above the low brick stove or range, where you could see the large brass teakettle and saucepans, shining from frequent scourings. A low, square table and flag-bottomed chairs, and, in two or three of the houses, tall clocks completed the furniture of the room. The mistress of the house was almost uniformly rosy, good-natured, and picturesque in her short gown, shawl crossed over her shoulders, Flemish cap with the corners turned back, and her wooden shoes clapping up and down the brick floor as she hurried about to make us welcome, offer us a comfortable chair, and present her two feeble-minded or insane guests to us.

When we came to the farm-houses, we saw the low-down fires blazing and smoking under huge cauldrons, which appeared to contain grass and herbs boiling for the supper of the cows that were living in the very next room; and their supper was passed in to them along the crooked bar on which it was suspended over the fire, and which had been ingeniously constructed by one farmer to serve as a railway and conduct it to them. It was a scene for Teniers,— the rosy dame seated at her table, with her little family and her weak-minded friends about her, to whom she was giving coffee and bread which she cut from a huge round loaf, while in the next room the handsome cows were lying or standing in fresh straw, and the smell of ammonia and new-mown hay pervaded the whole. The people made an impression of natural cheerfulness. Even the poor imbeciles seemed to share it, and had not that down-trodden, abject look that I have noticed elsewhere. One of them, independently seated while we were standing around her, looked up to my wife, and said in Flemish, "I think you are my sister." Another, a nice-looking youth, who earns most of his living by working on the farm, came up quite sociably to the same person, and, after making a polite bow, said, "My mother has just gone" ("Ma mère vient de partir"). In several cases, it was difficult to say which was the insane person, so alike were they all in age, dress, and general simplicity of manners and good nature. They have been taken into the family,— these poor demented men and women,— and are receiving the same care,

apparently, that the Belgian peasants give to their children, their brothers and sisters, and their dumb beasts; for in Belgium, as in Ireland, the cows and pigs are made members of the family.

Of course there is a business side, a practical aspect, to this Arcadian state of things; and also many painful incidents in that most painful of all human miseries,— confirmed and hopeless insanity. On its business side, this family care of the insane at Gheel is the main industry of the village, furnishing a large market also for the country products that grow so abundantly in the fat soil of these plains. If you add 2,000 consumers to the population of a town of 10,000, you have opened a great resource to the local farmers and traders; and when we reckon the physicians, nurses, care-takers, inspectors, etc., of the 1,900 patients who are domiciled at Gheel, either in the small central hospital or in the households, we have a couple of thousand consumers who must eat, drink, and wear what other people produce.

The actual situation as to numbers is much what it is at the great Willard Asylum on Seneca Lake in New York, where, when I saw it two years ago, there were not quite 1,900 inmates. But, frugal as the management there is, it is much surpassed in economy, by the management at Gheel. On an average of good and bad cases (requiring the lowest or the highest rates of payment), I suppose the cost of the insane at Gheel is less than $1.50 per week, including food, clothing, lodging, medical attendance, and a strict system of government inspection; while at Willard the cost of the same charges is nearly $3.00 per week. Moreover, there has been expended at Willard for land and buildings more than $1,600,000, or at the rate of $800 for each patient; while at Gheel the whole cost for the central hospital, with its 75 inmates, cannot have been more than $150,000. Consequently, the Belgian towns, which here support their pauper insane, pay little for interest on the hospital buildings.

Yet the Willard Asylum is one of the least expensive establishments for the insane in America. I know more than one great palace hospital in the United States where the mere cost of providing lands, buildings, etc., amounts to more than $2,500 for each inmate, involving an interest charge, at 5 per cent., of $125 per year, simply for shelter and warmth. Now look at the contrast with Gheel. We visited a large and comfortable farm-house (as comfort is estimated there) where two patients were very well cared for, and to which is attached a farm of thirty acres. Contrary to the custom, this farmer does not happen to own his farm, but hires it; and he pays for his

house and land 900 francs, or $180 per year. He supports his own family of five persons and the boarders in the house, and it costs him $180 for rent. At the Danvers Hospital in Massachusetts the mere sheltering of these two patients — and there are hundreds of the same class there — would cost the State $250 per year, which the Belgian farmer, if he lived in Massachusetts, would be taxed to pay. Instead of that, he receives about $150 per year for the care of his two patients. I think the business aspect of this arrangement would be appreciated in New England, and there are thousands there who could give as good care to the insane poor as do the Belgian farmers.

Now, this frugal cost at Gheel is one reason why it is so fast gaining in its insane population; and this increase is itself an evil, as is the overgrowth of the Willard Asylum, the Indianapolis Hospital, the Kankakee Hospital, and those gigantic pauper asylums at Hanwell, and elsewhere, which one sees in England. It would be better if there were two or three Gheels in Belgium instead of one, and some day there may be. Dr. Peeters in his Paris paper says: —

> Our Colony of Gheel has now existed for some centuries. The number of its patients increases from year to year; and it occupies a large space in the care of the insane of Belgium, for it gives shelter to more than 1,700 (now 1,900) of the 10,000 insane persons whom Belgium counts in its census. Moreover, other experiments in the household care for the insane are making in other countries, and everywhere reference is made to the experience afforded by our ancient institution. Among the different modes of caring for the insane, the close asylum, or hospital, has the chief place; for it can receive all cases, and especially all patients susceptible of cure. But for the chronic and harmless insane, for certain acute and curable cases also, household care [*le patronage de famille*] can be of great service. This system is in Belgium and in Scotland the complement of asylum treatment. It can and it ought to become so everywhere, since the number of insane in private dwellings increases everywhere, as well as the overcrowding of asylums increases, which causes their patients to be placed in families.

I found that Dr. Peeters, a well-trained and able alienist, had read the debates at our Conference of Charities in San Francisco, on family care for the insane, and also the debates at Saratoga about the same time, in which the success of Miss Cooke of Massachusetts in training insane women to domestic industry was set forth and debated. His own experience and that of Gheel for half a century quite confirm what was then said, and he is rather surprised that so practical

a people as the Yankees have not made more use of this simple method of supporting the insane poor in households instead of crowding them together in great asylums.

My own way of life has been such for many years that I have had occasion to see at least 60,000 insane persons, and perhaps I have conversed familiarly with 15,000. Consequently, I have had some experience with this unfortunate class; and I do not hesitate to say that the results arrived at in Gheel, though they leave much to be desired and much to be improved by time, are as important for the future treatment of insanity as the results I have anywhere seen. Perhaps I ought to make an exception in favor of the similar Scotch methods of caring for the insane in private dwellings,— a system almost unknown in England, and of which there are as yet but few examples in America. In Scotland it is carried quite as far as in Belgium, but in a different manner, the insane being scattered through the kingdom in families instead of concentrating them at one town, as in Gheel. I visited several of the cottages in Fife (beyond the new Forth bridge from Edinburgh) where such insane paupers board; and I found them, as in Belgium, better provided for, on the whole, than if they were in asylums. Sir Arthur Mitchell, the father of the present system in Scotland (though the practice is a very old one), told me that it works increasingly well there; Dr. Turnbull, of the Fife county asylum, at Cupar, said the same thing; and this is the verdict of others who examine it. Not less than 2,300 among the more than 12.000 reported insane in Scotland now live in private families, under the inspection of the Scotch Lunacy Board; that is, above one-fifth of the whole class. Were the system as fully carried on in Massachusetts, as I believe it could be, 1,200 of our 6,000 insane population would be living in families, at less cost and in greater comfort than they now have in hospitals or asylums. Dr. Tuke, the best known of the many English writers on insanity, favors the extension of this system into England, and particularly into his native county of Yorkshire; and the new lunacy law of England now permits and almost encourages the practice, which is sure to gain ground everywhere, as it becomes known.

The Scotch cottages which I visited in Cupar and Kennoway are, as a rule, much smaller than those cottages and farm-houses in which our Massachusetts insane were placed by me in 1885, '86, '87, '88; and the care taken of the patients, though good enough, is inferior, as I thought, to the care bestowed in Massachusetts on persons of the

same class in our families. I saw nowhere, either in Scotland or Belgium, such excellent and effective training in domestic industry as has been given in Massachusetts, for the past four or five years, to insane women, by Miss Alice Cooke of Sandwich, who has a genius for that sort of work. But everywhere I did see what commends this method of family care more than any sumptuous provision of palace or cottage hospitals could do,— that affectionate and natural interest in the individual patients, on the part of their care-takers, which is so apt to be lost or destroyed by the aggregation of hundreds or thousands of the insane in a single great asylum.

The Scotch and Belgian systems of family care for the insane were the best things in the way of public charity which I saw in Europe, and those by which American charities can most profit, as I think. Both of these are methods of outdoor relief, in the old English sense of the word; yet they are gaining ground in other European countries, and will do so here as they become better known. I found in Italy, however, under animated discussion, a great change in the whole administration of charities, which was consummated six weeks after I left Italy, and of which I wrote something to the Baltimore Conference. Let me repeat and enlarge a little on that radical reorganization of charities in Italy of which I wrote a year ago,— the secularizing of the so-called *Opere Pie.*

The *Opere Pie* ("Pious Foundations") of Italy declare by their name that they are religious institutions, and, as such, they have generally been administered by priests, as were the corresponding foundations in France before the Revolution of 1789, and those of England before the Reformation. They are quite various in their character, the official inquests of the Italian government, recently made public, having arranged them in thirty-three classes. According to this report, the substance of which was given in the French *Journal des Économistes* in October, 1889, these charities number 21,819, besides 2,690 banking institutions (pawn-brokers, loan funds, etc.) which have or did have a charitable character. The property of these 21,819 various charities was reported as worth 1,731,000,000 lire, or $350,000,000, but a better estimate is $400,000,000; and their yearly income, including collections and gifts, reaches the great sum of 95,507,000 lire, or almost $20,000,000. Many of them have a religious rather than a distinctly charitable character; but the great majority either maintain hospitals, infirmaries, almshouses, orphan asylums, etc., or else distribute food, money, clothing, etc., to the poor of the city or town

where they are, or aid widows and apprenticed children in that locality. Many are educational in their scope, and their education means always a close attention to the doctrines and practice of the Roman Church. Few persons, even in Italy, were aware of the extent and importance of these semi-religious charities until the official investigation disclosed it; nor even then, until Signor Crispi, the Prime Minister, in his speeches before Parliament, and Signor Villari, a Florentine Senator, in a long article published in the *Nuova Antologia* last May, gave them the information in a portable form. The bill reorganizing these charities was passed by the Italian Chamber of Deputies, Dec. 10, 1889, reported to the Senate by Crispi, December 23, and passed May 8, 1890, in the Senate, but with considerable modifications, against which Crispi protested. It finally became a law July 15, 1890, with these modifications.

These ancient Italian charities have been, from time immemorial, in the hands of the Catholic Church. They have grown up during the past twelve or fifteen centuries, and some of them may even date back to the time of Constantine before the Latin and the Greek Churches separated. They have accumulated, in the course of centuries, a vast property. In his speech of May 2, 1890, Signor Crispi said: —

The *Opere* of charity in Italy altogether control a property of $400,000,000. Their yearly income is $18,000,000, and might be $20,000,000 if there was a better management. Their expenses, apart from the charity they distribute, are, in gross, $3,000,000 for taxes, $1,600,000 for charges on the property, and $3,400,000 for expenses of administration, leaving only $10,000,000 out of $18,000,000 to be expended for charitable uses. But, of the whole 21,818 institutions, less than 7,000 have property enough for their needs. The yearly income of 10,000 *Opere Pie* is less than $100 each, and only 4,200 have an income of between $100 and $300 a year.

In this calculation, all endowments are reckoned, whether their object be educational, religious, or eleemosynary. But the strictly charitable institutions are 8,215 in number, with a property of 180,000,000 lire ($36,000,000) and an income of $2,000,000. Considering that Italy now has nearly or quite 30,000,000 people, this charitable fund does not seem very large; and, in fact, it is always supplemented more or less by money raised among the people in the form of taxes. Rome, for example, with charitable funds of more than $1,000,000 net income, and with little more than 400,000 inhabitants, raised by

taxation in 1889 more than $300,000, which went to increase the fund for relieving the poor.

In some of the establishments the cost of administering the charity was more than a third part of the whole income; and, in general, there was complaint that the priests managed them either for their own comfort or for political purposes. I was told in Palermo, for example, that, of the great funds which come into the hands of the clerical managers of these charities, only a small part goes to the poor, the rest being used politically, and, as was intimated, against the existing government of Italy. Signor Crispi, who is a Sicilian, an old Garibaldian, and not a very ardent friend of the Church, made up his mind to turn out these clerical managers and leave the control of the charities to a board in each municipality, from which parish priests are excluded by one section of the new law. His reasoning on this point to the Italian Senate, which voted with him, was as follows, in May, 1890: —

Granting that the priest is a good man and a friend of the poor, he is still subject to the orders of his bishop, who appointed him and can suspend him, and whom he has sworn to obey. But there are not two co-ordinate powers in Italy, each entitled to obedience; and in the distribution of charity, as in other civil matters, the government must be supreme. Hence it follows that the priest must not administer charity in Italy. We exclude him, not because he is not a good priest, but because he is under other orders than those of the Italian people.

Crispi went on to say that the charities themselves must be concentrated and reorganized under the direction of boards elected in each commune. He added: —

The concentration of these charities has several objects in view. To bring under one management all those in one place which have a similar scope is to give unity to their beneficence and economy to their outlay; and we concentrate, also, those which are now so small as to be useless, particularly the charities of little towns. The result of all this will be frugality in management, activity and efficiency in supervision. It will check professional beggary as well as other abuses. We are making a law which introduces order and liberty in those charitable institutions where till now disorder has reigned.

In reply to a Senator, Alfieri, who had spoken of the greater freedom allowed to private charities in the United States than the new law permits in Italy, Crispi said: —

Senator Alfieri reminds us of America. Let me remind him that there is an enormous difference between Europe and America. The United States have not the burden of the Middle Ages on their back. They have no need to tear down before they can build up. All they have to do is to build. The day will come when we can compare ourselves with America; but there is much to be done before that. Savigny says that charity is sometimes hurtful. So it is when it does not educate, when it fosters idleness, when the government permits it to continue in antiquated forms.

No doubt the turning over of these myriad charities to new boards, elected by popular suffrage in each locality, will introduce new methods and suppress many old abuses. No doubt the exclusion of parish priests from these boards will deprive the clergy of a great power for good as well as for harm. What is to be feared is the introduction of political methods instead of clerical methods, which were also in part political. The office-holder and the office-seeker in Italy are often the cause of abuses, as they are with us; and the funds and gifts of charity may be used there, as they sometimes are here, to promote personal and political objects. I have known an important charitable appointment given in Massachusetts to reward a particularly dirty political service; and I cannot suppose that the Italian politicians are more scrupulous than those of New England. It is upon this danger — a very real one — that the clerical opponents of Crispi's law fasten their eyes and seek to fix the attention of the good people of Italy. Unfortunately for them, the politics of the Vatican are known to be little purer than the politics of Naples and Genoa; while the Italian people are resolute to free their country from all temporal sovereignty by the Pope and his ecclesiastics, great and small. Upon this point Crispi often insists, and always with the applause and support of his countrymen. Late in April, 1890, while advocating his law in the Senate, he said with emphasis: —

We have enacted the separation of Church and State: these are henceforth two powers, which act each in its own sphere and for its own purposes. If we wished to unite these two powers, we should violate our constitution. I have said that the Pope, as a temporal prince, has no rights greater than those of the other dispossessed princes of Italy; and, if we do not agree to this, why do we remain in Rome? Why do we not vote to terminate the unity of our country? [Applause.] No one of you Senators thinks otherwise than I have said,— that the Pope has no greater rights as a claimant than the other displaced sovereigns. [Great applause.] In truth, our law punishes the enemies of Italy; but the good priests have no occasion to

fear it: only the bad priests are the enemies of our country. No, it is not priests alone who are aimed at in these articles: it is all those who refuse to recognize our institutions, who disobey our laws, who hate our unity, and who, living under our flag, abuse our liberty and conspire against the country. [Applause.]

The only safety for Italy in the eyes of the Vatican is to restore the Pope to his temporal power and turn the King of Italy out of Rome. Instead of seeing this accomplished, the clerical party in that kingdom will probably find themselves greatly weakened by this new law which takes the charities out of their hands; and, though the poor will in some quarters suffer by the change, its general effect will be to put the poor-law system of Italy on a better foundation and provide more wisely against the persistent poverty of the Italian people. This poverty, like that of the people of Greece, is very obvious and distressing in many parts of Italy; yet, in spite of the industrial and financial depression there, which has now prevailed for two or three years, the poor are better fed, better taught, and less addicted to begging and stealing than they were under the highly educated Bourbons of Naples and their clerical supporters in the States of the Church. The accounts given by all travellers fifty or sixty years ago, and particularly by an observant Frenchman (Bussières) in 1837, show how universal and incorrigible was mendicancy in Sicily less than twenty-five years before Garibaldi set it free in 1860; and this same thing was to be seen all over Southern and Central Italy. Now, although there are still many beggars, you seldom see, even in small, old-fashioned places like Taormina, such things as Bussières described, and even there nothing like the extreme shamelessness of beggary which prevailed under the Bourbons.

Education is spreading fast among the young Sicilians, and schools are much the fashion. In an almshouse which I visited in Palermo — the great Albergo dei Poveri, for women and children — I not only found the younger girls reading and writing, but the older ones were studying music, and a class of twenty or thirty were listening to an eloquent lecture on Manzoni and Italian literature in general. Fancy the girls at the Monson State Primary School (formerly an almshouse) taking notes of a lecture on Walter Scott, Shakespeare, and Hawthorne, and you would have a Massachusetts parallel to the scene. Young Sicily does not mean to be left behind in any part of the race for higher civilization. The people speak a Sicilian dialect hard to understand, but the children are taught pure Italian, as I

can testify ; for I went into a little free school of the petty village of Mola,— two thousand one hundred feet above the "violet-hued sea," as Homer calls it,— and there the little men of eight, ten, and twelve years stood up and recited to me in good Italian, and with all the tone and gesture of orators, the story of Horatius and the Bridge, of Cornelia, mother of Gracchus, and of the modern Horatius and Gracchus in one,— Garibaldi, the liberator. These boys, in the matter of language, will soon carry their fathers on their backs, as Æneas did ; and they are growing up to a brave patriotism for united Italy which is good to see. I told the boys I was an American, and, to prove it, gave the schoolmaster some money, as I had done with a Greek schoolmaster at Chæronea. That afternoon, as I was walking on the road to Mola with my wife, we met one of the school-boys going down to the town to sell a few things, and munching a lemon, which perhaps he had borrowed from a tree. We recognized each other, and I asked him to tell us the story of Horatius. He laid down his bundle, to free his right hand. Then, reflecting that he should need the other hand for the grand gesture of plunging into the stream, he laid down also his dear lemon, and gave us the story with all due eloquence. Such boys, ragged and dirty as they are, make the hope of Italy. They grow up to be good soldiers, are not too servile toward the priests and lazy monks, and the control of the future rests with them.

The charities of Greece and Italy, when compared with those of colder climates, need a special word of comment. Last winter was exceptionally rigorous there, and caused great suffering and illness to the poor ; but, in general, their winters are very mild compared with ours. This one fact makes the necessary cost of public and private charity much less than it must be in England or in the United States.

Another remark is here to be made. I have heard it argued, both in England and here, that public charity, official almsgiving, could be dispensed with,— that all relief to the poor should be by private charity. But observe that in Italy, where this system of religious private charities has been for a thousand years honestly pursued under the very eye of the Church and of the head of the Church, it has been attended with such evils that the system has been radically changed. And this is not the only country where such a change has been made. It was done in France a hundred years ago, during the revolutionary period. Here in Italy is a country of thirty millions of people, attached to the Catholic Church by the strongest ties, which

has imposed upon the government the duty of administering indoor and outdoor relief instead of leaving it to private control. As a practical matter, the administration of these private charities has failed in many cases; and I think the same system will fail elsewhere.

At the same time, while making these comments, I wish to say, emphatically, that I regard charity itself, in its secular sense of relief to the poor, as distinctly a Christian doctrine, a religious duty, and an indispensable practice. I am no worshipper in that church of the uncharitable, whose dogmas are preached to us in so many places, and sometimes from the platform of our Conference. Charity is one thing, Restraint is another, and both are needed in our dealing with the defective, dependent, and delinquent classes. But let us never forget that Charity is a *divine* thing, a *heavenly* gift, Restraint but an invention of man; and let us never in our ardor for theories, or in the heat of controversy, or in the cold conclusions of common sense, commit that sin which doth so easily beset us, of placing the lower above the higher, the earthly above the heavenly.

XI.

Immigration.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE.

BY S. C. WRIGHTINGTON,

SUPERINTENDENT INDOOR POOR, BOSTON, MASS.

The second session of the Fifty-first Congress just closed witnessed the usual attempts at legislation relating to immigration, but two of which received the special consideration of the House, and neither of which received any consideration whatever in the co-ordinate Branch.

On Monday, February 23, the House held a second evening session devoted to the consideration of bills reported by the Select Committee on Immigration and Naturalization and the House Committee on the Judiciary; and on Wednesday, February 25, the question being on the substitution of the bill from the Committee on the Judiciary (the Oates bill) for the bill of the Select Committee (the Owen bill), the vote stood for substitution 41 against 207. Whereupon the passage of the Owen bill, reported by a select committee, was secured by a vote of 125 to 48, as a substitute for the Oates bill, reported by the Judiciary Committee.

On Friday, February 27, the Owen bill passed the Senate, seemingly without consideration.

It will be recollected that Mr. Oates was a prominent member of a special committee of the previous Congress known as the Ford Immigration Committee, who visited the various ports of the United States open to the introduction of aliens, and obtained much information concerning the character, condition, and habits of arriving immigrants, and the methods adopted to prevent the landing of convicts, lunatics, idiots, paupers, and contract laborers. That the information thus or otherwise obtained was extensive and valuable is made certain by the provisions of this bill. So important an addition to the statute book of the United States is rarely attempted. It stamps its author as the possessor of great intellectual powers, of extensive knowledge, and of a

thorough understanding of the subject. Its introduction is evidence of his possessing the courage of his convictions, and the energy displayed by him on the floor of the House showed a determination to accomplish desired results by all available means.

For regulating immigration into the United States, whether from contiguous territory or transatlantic countries, by land or by water, it provides: —

First.— "That no alien shall be admitted into the United States of America who is an idiot, insane, a pauper, or liable to become a public charge, or who has been legally convicted of a felony, other infamous crime, or misdemeanor involving moral turpitude, or who is a polygamist, or anarchist, or who is afflicted with any loathsome or contagious disease, or who has entered into contract, express or implied, oral or written, to perform labor or service for any person, firm, company, or corporation in the United States or doing business therein, or who comes on a ticket purchased in the United States and known as a prepaid ticket, or who receives the money with which to pay his or her passage, on a promise, understanding, or agreement to labor for any person, firm, company, or corporation within the United States, except as provided in the act of 1885."

Second.— "That any alien [except idiots and lunatics] who shall come into the United States in violation of any of the provisions of this act or other laws of the United States, or who shall bring, aid, or assist in bringing into the United States any alien, including idiots and lunatics, contrary to the provisions of this act, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and, if prosecuted within two years thereafter, shall, upon conviction, be fined for each such person who comes, is brought, or assisted, not exceeding one thousand dollars, and may be imprisoned or sentenced to hard labor for not more than three years."

Third.— "That upon every alien who comes into the United States there shall be levied and collected a duty or tax of five dollars, which shall be paid to the collector of customs at the port or place at which such alien enters the United States, or the collector nearest thereto if there be no collector at the port or place of entry, by the master, owner, or agent of the vessel, railroad, or other carrier, by and upon which such alien is brought to or into the United States."

Fourth.— "That the Secretary of the Treasury is hereby charged with the duty of supervising immigration to the United States and of regulating all matters pertaining thereto; and for that purpose he shall have the power to make all needful contracts, employ assistance,

and to do all acts necessary for the comfort, protection, and proper landing of immigrants."

For the prevention of the naturalization of improper persons it provides: —

First.— "That no alien who has ever been convicted of a felony or other infamous crime, or misdemeanor involving moral turpitude, or who is an anarchist or polygamist, or who immigrated to the United States in violation of any of the laws thereof, or who cannot read the constitution of the United States, shall be naturalized or adjudged by any court to be a citizen of the United States."

Second.—"That, whenever any person shall be naturalized under the laws of the United States as a citizen thereof, it shall be the duty of the clerk of the court by which such person shall be so naturalized forthwith to furnish to the Secretary of State of the United States, addressed to the naturalization division, a full transcript of the record of the said proceedings, and of the evidence upon which the naturalization was adjudged."

Such, in brief, are the prohibitory provisions of this remarkable proposed legislation; and the methods selected for its enforcement and the power and authority delegated for that purpose would seem to be all-sufficing. They are in line with the suggestions of last year's Conference, and must commend themselves to all not otherwise interested in immigration than as citizens of the United States.

That the legislation thus proposed by this bill would effectually check immigration from European countries and the Dominion of Canada not expressly prohibited is unquestioned, but not to an extent undesired. The days of practically unrestricted immigration are numbered, and the nation is awaiting the suggestion of approved methods to make its restriction effectual.

It has been well said: "Objection to a second universal deluge cannot be successfully met by the remark that the objector is afraid of getting wet, nor objection to a continuance of present wholesale immigration into the United States by a passing allusion to the parentage of the objector's grandfather. The admission that the immigrant of to-day is of the same race and lineage as the colonist of an earlier century does not preclude a denial of his equality with him, physically, intellectually, or morally, nor does the admission that the apparent condition of arriving immigrants is fully equal to that of their earlier congeners warrant the determination of their potential equality, their possession of equal latent possibilities."

No comparison of the earlier and later European immigration would be complete that did not point out the widely differing circumstances under which such migration proceeded. The sacrifice, courage, energy, and endurance requisite to this self-expatriation of earlier days has no parallel in our own times. Prepaid tickets, furnished by American relatives or friends, were unknown. Rigid economy must be practised to permit the saving of money sufficient to meet the expense of a sea voyage, whose terrors were surpassed only by those of the "middle passage." A comparatively unknown country was to furnish their new homes; and a determination to persevere in their undertaking, regardless of intervening obstacles, was necessary to its accomplishment. To the discomforts of a sea voyage were added those of inland travel to their intended destination, and the privations to which they were subjected in their new home. From the start to the finish, life was a burden. Closely packed in the hold of sailing vessels for a period often extending over several weeks, fed from their own larders, with scant opportunities for cooking the food they themselves supplied, their drinking water furnished in measured quantities which an extended voyage too often lessened, their every movement directed or controlled by brutal officers responsible only to employers whose chief concern was the profits accruing from the venture, what wonder that numbers died, and many others, escaping death by a hand-breadth, carried their scars through life! But, with many, discomforts ceased not on their landing. To the terrors of the emigrant packet were added the terrors of the emigrant train; and, where the distance to be travelled was considerable, these discomforts were numerous and continuous. Their destination reached, they were not as now met by relatives and sympathizing friends with invitations to rest and recruit before entering upon their labors, but by stern necessity's invitation to immediate and continuous toil.

The difference of economic well-being in Europe and the United States is the chief cause of transatlantic immigration of to-day, and accounts for the fact that in periods of business depression the percentage of skilled laborers among such immigrants is largely increased. This because a reduction of wages at home necessitates a curtailment of what they have learned to consider necessaries of life; and the additional reason that in such periods they, of all intending emigrants, have more readily at command the means of procuring transportation to more favored lands. And it is, therefore, at the precise time when their appearance among us is most injurious to

our own mechanics that the incentive to emigrate attains its greatest force, because with us, also, at such periods, the skilled laborer is the first to feel the effects of such depression, his work being practically confined to the manufacture of other than actual necessaries. That the people of the United States are under any moral obligation to receive the coming stranger to their own disadvantage cannot possibly be true.

The watchwords, "Freedom of migration" and "The United States an asylum for all nations," have had their day, and are relegated to the past, with many other pleasing but expensive illusions. Mr. Kapp tells us of the money value of the imported laborer in the markets of the United States, but neglects to tell us to whose benefit that value inures, or what possible value to a community attaches to that laborer's offer when his acceptance of employment necessitates the discharge of his predecessor, with the possible sequence of adding his family to the pauper class. He recites statistics as to the amount of money each immigrant brings with him to swell the wealth of our nation, but fails to mention the ever increasing amount remitted from hence to Europe for present support and later emigration of ever increasing numbers. Lord Monkswell, in his paper on State Colonization, quotes Dr. Tuke as affirming "that the amount sent to Ireland by emigrants every year exceeds the total yearly cost of poor relief in Ireland," and adds, "And in England, too, we know that many old people are maintained out of the savings of their descendants in the Colonies." The Charity Organization of Buffalo reports in 1881:

> A large settlement of Poles now exists here, who live in a state of debasement difficult to understand. They are at present industrious and saving. They work all summer, hoard their pay, and send it off in the beginning of winter to their friends at home to assist them to arrive here. Then those here and their friends, when they arrive, all being destitute alike, go on the Poormaster's book and subsist until spring.

It is estimated that fully one-half of arriving aliens come out on prepaid tickets, and the passage of a large proportion of the remainder is paid from money remitted from America.

To what extent their continuance with us adds to our burden of pauper support, how many additional hospitals are required for the treatment of their sick and the restraint of their insane, has been often told, and need not be here repeated. The expense to the public for the maintenance of such of their number as fall into distress is

monstrously disproportionate to the expense entailed on the community by the distress of our own people.

The Owen bill, which is now a law, having gone into effect April 1, differs materially from the Oates bill in that it does not seek to decrease immigration into the United States, but to improve former methods for excluding the more undesirable classes. Its provisions for that purpose are briefly as follows:—

First.— "That the following classes of aliens shall be excluded from admission into the United States, in accordance with the existing acts regulating immigration, other than those concerning Chinese laborers: all idiots, insane persons, paupers, or persons likely to become a public charge, persons suffering from a loathsome or a dangerous contagious disease, persons who have been convicted of a felony or misdemeanor involving moral turpitude, polygamists, and also any person whose ticket or passage is paid for with the money of another, or who is assisted by others to come, unless it is affirmatively and satisfactorily shown on special inquiry that such person does not belong to one of the foregoing excluded classes, or to the class of contract laborers excluded by the act of Feb. 26, 1885."

Second.— "That all aliens who may unlawfully come to the United States shall, if practicable, be immediately sent back on the vessel by which they were brought in. The cost of their maintenance while on land, as well as the expense of the return of such aliens, shall be borne by the owner or owners of the vessel on which such aliens came."

Third.— "That any alien who shall come into the United States in violation of law may be returned, as by law provided, at any time within one year thereafter, at the expense of the person or persons, vessel, transportation company, or corporation, bringing such alien into the United States, and, if that cannot be done, then at the expense of the United States; and any alien who becomes a public charge within one year after his arrival in the United States, from causes existing prior to his landing therein, shall be deemed to have come in violation of law, and shall be returned as aforesaid."

Fourth.— "That the office of superintendent of immigration is hereby created and established, and the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, is authorized and directed to appoint such officer. All duties imposed and powers conferred by the second section of the act of July 3, 1882, upon State commissioners, boards, or officers acting under contract with the Secretary of the

Treasury, shall be performed and exercised, as occasion may arise, by the inspection officers of the United States."

Provision is made for inspection along the borders of Canada, British Columbia, and Mexico; but as the act of 1882 specifically provides that no greater sum shall be expended for the supervision of immigration and the maintenance of immigrants at any port than shall have been collected at such port, and the act of 1884 prohibits the levy and collection of head money on account of alien passengers arriving in the United States from Canada and Mexico, it is not entirely clear what treasury is to bear the burden of this expense. Severe penalties are imposed on persons who shall aid to bring into the United States aliens not lawfully entitled to enter, and suitable provision is made for the examination of all alien passengers other than on shipboard.

Precisely what is the true intent and purpose of the sentence concerning the performance of duties and exercise of powers, as occasion may arise, by the inspection officers of the United States, has not been determined. There is but little doubt, however, that the committee had no other intention than to make certain the disputed authority of the Secretary of the Treasury in connection with the local affairs of immigration, and the support and relief of such immigrants as require public aid.

Mr. Owen, who introduced the successful bill to the House, was chairman of the Select Committee who visited some of our more prominent cities last summer, securing evidence as to the defects of the acts of 1882 and 1885, and obtaining information relative to the wants of our community in regard to alien immigration. His bill, which was understood to have the indorsement of the Treasury Department, is essentially a compromise, and is subject to the criticism necessarily attending all compromises,— of not satisfying any considerable number of persons, and especially such as are personally interested in preventing the importation of laborers into the United States to compete with our own citizens. In this respect, it bears no comparison with the Oates bill; nor is it certain that it will be more effective, except so far as it legislates against prepaid tickets, than previously existing laws. The spirit of the proposed legislation is avowed by Mr. Owen in the report that accompanies his bill. He says, "The intent of our immigration laws is not to restrict immigration, but to sift it, to separate the desirable from the undesirable immigrants, and to permit only those to land on our shores who have certain physical and moral qualities."

Of the earlier he says, "By their morals, thrift, and economy they have helped to build up for themselves and their new home a nation such as only that kind of citizens could create." Of the latter he affirms: —

But some fifteen years ago societies were organized throughout Europe to assist emigration. Many municipal corporations, and even national governments, provided money annually to deport their poor and to furnish a landing sum with which to begin life in the New World. These people were deported for their countries' good, for no government will assist the emigration of its desirable citizens. The effect of this emigration was soon manifested by the increased number of convicts, paupers, and other unfortunates among our foreign-born population. These struggling unfortunates, induced by agents of steamship companies to believe there is an Eldorado where they will fare better, and whipped by the desperation of their necessities, become involuntary immigrants to America; and in most instances they prove undesirable citizens. It appears in the evidence that hundreds of these people are brought over here every month in this manner. They oftentimes sell their donkey or goat, or borrow money for the passage, which is $20 to $26, at a rate that makes the passage cost them $80 to $100. They are taken in charge on landing by a *padrone* or labor boss, who herds them in a tenement house, and hires them out at wages he dictates, and in which he shares with his victim. One combination of agents in Austria secured the emigration of 5,790 persons to this country in one year. Another combination in Galatia induced 12,406 to emigrate to this country within the period of fourteen months.

Of the wholesale violation of the spirit of the Contract Labor Law he reports: —

Employers interested in importing large bodies of men have devised other ways to avoid the contract law. Agents are now sent to Europe who employ natives as assistant agents in districts where they decide to operate. They arouse an interest in America by circulating glowing descriptions of the development and prosperity of the New World, the wages here paid, and the fabulous fortunes made by men who have emigrated from their country. They particularize the districts where laborers are needed, and the wages paid are reported five to ten times higher than in their locality. The agent will enter into no contract, but makes abundant promises of work; and the inducement to go becomes so great that ships have been chartered from their customary traffic to bring over cargoes of these people. These are the immigrants who, skilled and unskilled, on landing know their destination, and file from the barge office to their employer's office as directly and effectually as the old-time laborer who went with his contract in his pocket.

Well may he add: —

The effect of this induced immigration is not only found in the almshouses and on the morals of our country, but its tendency is to constantly lower our standard of wages. Fifteen years ago the cigar-makers of New York were earning $18 per week. On differences arising between employers and men, foreigners were imported to fill the place of our men, and wages were reduced; for, whatever the wage might be, to them it was higher than in Europe. Cigar-makers' wages have declined to an average of $8 per week.

And all this as a corollary to the statement that "the intent of our immigration laws is not to restrict immigration, but to sift it." Such is Mr. Owen's characterization of existing immigration, this the chaff he seeks to sift. What sieve, of whatever fineness, though fashioned from the "mills of the gods," could avail here?

That this legislation, as previously suggested, is essentially a compromise, receives strong confirmation by a comparison of the hereinrecited methods employed by European governments, transatlantic municipal corporations, and continental agents for inducing immigration to the United States, and the facility with which, while avoiding any violation of the letter of the contract labor law, they have been enabled to accomplish their purpose of introducing foreign laborers into this country, with the methods to be officially employed here to render their efforts unavailing and gradually improve the general character of unprohibited immigration.

This disparity of methods is too great. Something more is needed to defeat the efforts of unscrupulous and unprincipled foreigners, actuated only by greed of gain. Probably no one better knows this fact than Mr. Owen, and his answer may well be imagined. "The halls of Congress have been repeatedly strewn with aborted legislation regulating immigration, and I have no ambition to swell the volume or to figure in the list with other promoters of defeated national legislation." Few members of the House have had equal opportunities of obtaining information on the subject, the earnest desire to procure legislation adequate to the purpose, and the determination necessary for its procurement.

It is doubtful if better could have been obtained. The closing hours of a Congressional session are not the best adapted for purposes of legislation; and that Mr. Owen was able to procure the passage of the bill introduced by him speaks well for his parliamentary knowledge and for the estimation in which he is held by his legislative brethren.

Since April 19, 1890, the general government has attended to the local supervision of immigration at the port of New York directly through its own appointed officers instead of, as previously, through the New York Commissioners of Emigration. The exact cost to the United States of this experiment has not been published, and of course the expense attending the same as compared with that of other ports is not known. What is known, however, is that, while the United States Treasury is charged by the Massachusetts Board of Charities $3.25 per week for the board of such alien immigrants landing at its ports as subsequently required the treatment or restraint of its lunatic hospitals, said Treasury has been mulcted to the amount of $1.50 per day for the support of the same cases who had made New York their port of landing. When the buildings now in course of erection on Ellis Island are completed, this per diem will doubtless be lessened; but at no other port than that of New York would the general government be justified in incurring an expense so great as will be necessarily incurred in the conversion of that island to charitable purposes.

The report of the Bureau of Statistics of the Treasury Department tabulates the arrival of 455,302 alien immigrants from foreign ports other than those of Mexico and Canada to ports of the United States for the year ending June 30, 1890, divided as follows: at the port of New York 364,086; of Portland, 531; of Boston, 29,813; of Philadelphia, 22,658; of Baltimore, 27,178; of Key West, 2,482; of New Orleans, 3,878; of San Francisco, 3,606; of all other ports 1,070. These numbers, not including the arrivals by water from Mexico and the Dominion of Canada, as was the custom prior to 1885, might be considerably increased by adding thereto such arrivals, which at Boston alone during the past year number 19,781 immigrants, from whom no head money was exacted.

From this extract it will be seen that, excluding the port of New York, immigration into the United States is practically confined to the ports of Baltimore, Philadelphia, and Boston, at which ports the work of local supervision is performed by State Commissions. It is understood that these commissions are united in the opinion that the work can be more efficiently and economically done at their several ports by present methods than by substituting therefor the method which now obtains at the port of New York. So convinced of the correctness of the opinion was the Massachusetts State Board of Lunacy and Charity that a committee of that body visited Wash-

ington early in the present year, authorized to remonstrate against any change of methods at the ports of that State, if any such change was in contemplation. An interview with the late Secretary Windom on this occasion was productive of an exchange of views relating thereto, and the assurance that no change of methods at the several ports had been seriously contemplated.

It is clearly evident, however, that methods of service are of minor importance as compared with the ever increasing importance of immigration itself; and the report may well be closed by a second extract from the paper of Lord Monkswell before alluded to. He says: "The lately formed association in England for the promotion of State colonization, which at first proposed to facilitate emigration, have abandoned that scheme because of the opposition of the colonies to their territories being made a dumping-ground, or to have rubbish shot thereon"; and adds: "As regards emigration of the poor, there must always, in the nature of things, be a direct conflict of interest between the country which sends off its surplus population and the country to which that surplus is sent. The one country is most anxious to get rid of the very men whom the other country is most anxious not to receive." *

THE RESTRICTION OF IMMIGRATION.

BY HON. CADWALADER BIDDLE,

SECRETARY OF THE STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES, PENNSYLVANIA.

There can be no mistaking the popular feeling in the United States to-day upon the subject of immigration. That it should be restricted is universally felt, and the only difference of opinion is as to how far the restriction should be carried. Some (and they are not few in number) would have us henceforth exclude all immigrants, and extend the operation of the act now limited to the Chinese so as to include those of every nationality.

* The report of a committee consisting of six persons cannot well embody the exact opinion of each, and will of necessity represent more nearly the views of its compiler, who in this case is its chairman. For the opinion herein expressed relative to the desirability of permitting practically unrestricted alien immigration into the United States, other members are not necessarily responsible.

(Signed) S. C. WRIGHTINGTON,
Chairman.

Such persons do not stop to consider how far this feeling is consistent with the pride that is taken in the fact that each succeeding census shows what enormous growth there has been in the population of our municipalities and other divisions of our State governments, or with the satisfaction we have when we compare with the previous record the increase in our national wealth,—when we read of the added miles of railroads, the growth in the number of manufacturing establishments, the augmented value of the products both of the soil and of the industrial shops. Little is thought of the increase in the number of tons of wealth taken by the miners from the ground or of the number of acres of soil opened to the cultivation of the farmer. No consideration is given to the fact that, in order to accomplish such results, we required the labor of all of the immigrants admitted to our country during the past decade, and that, if we are to continue to increase in prosperity and wealth as a nation in the future as we have done in the past, we shall need just such assistance to enable the surplus accumulations to be reinvested, and again become a part of our substantial growth.

The great economic questions that arise when the demand for labor is greater than the supply are not thought of; and legislators are appealed to, to enact restrictive laws solely because, as a people, we have prejudices against certain nationalities.

The larger portion of our population, however, does not sympathize with prohibition, but contents itself with demanding the passage of restrictive laws which shall prevent the landing in our country of such aliens as have been convicts or lunatics, or as may for any reason be likely to become public charges.

So familiar have our ears become with the phrase "the dumping-ground of Europe" (for every orator seems to have found it necessary, when speaking of immigration, to make use of this phrase) that I think we have overestimated the extent of the evils that have arisen from this cause. Have we a right to hope that the newly arriving immigrants shall be superior to the average citizens in the countries from which they come, or, indeed, that they shall be superior to ourselves?

Let us for a minute consider the question. In an able paper read before this Conference (at a meeting held, I think, in Washington City) by my greatly esteemed friend, Mr. Wines, it was stated that it had been estimated that in the United States one out of every hundred of the population belonged to the criminal or defective classes,

while in many of the European continental countries the proportion of these classes was not less than one in thirty of the entire population.

The immigration to America in the past ten years has averaged not less than 500,000 souls annually. Take such a population in either the United States or in Europe. Would we not find it necessary to have for their benefit a penitentiary, a house of correction or workhouse, a reformatory for youths, many orphans' homes, and hospitals almost innumerable, besides many associations for preventive purposes? All of these are required to provide for such a proportion of the defective classes even in our own midst. If such classes should average only one in every hundred, we should have in the United States 5,000 in every 500,000 to care for, or if, as in Europe, they should average one in thirty, then there would be nearly 20,000 in every 500,000 to be cared for. Now, by our laws we demand that no one of the half-million annually arriving here shall be or (what is much stronger) "shall be likely to *become*" a public charge.

Now, speaking from the standpoint of one who has full knowledge of the subject from the experience acquired as a Commissioner of Immigration at the port of Philadelphia (where the Board of Public Charities of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania have acted as the agents of the United States government in enforcing the immigration laws), I am prepared to say that the class of immigrants who have arrived at that port has been far, far above the average. No human power could prevent the landing of some whose presence among us is undesirable or foresee certain catastrophes which cause many to become public charges who, at the time of landing, have been entirely able to support themselves. But I have no hesitation in asserting that nothing like the proportion of one in a hundred of those landing in Philadelphia has become, or is likely ever to become, a charge on the public.

For some years past, it has been our custom to address a letter annually to each poorhouse in the State of Pennsylvania, inquiring how many of its inmates have landed at the port of Philadelphia within a year from the date of writing, that being the length of time after landing during which, under the immigration laws, aid may be furnished such as fall into distress, it being also the period when, as strangers, the immigrants are most likely to require assistance. (Note, please, that by far the larger part of the immigrants who arrive at the port of Philadelphia, averaging 25,000 annu-

ally, remain in the State of Pennsylvania.) We have had replies from every poorhouse, and but one case has been reported (that of a woman) who belonged to the prohibited classes of immigrants; and she was returned to her native land at the expense of the steamship company that brought her to America.

One feature in the operation of the restrictive law has been strangely overlooked, and that is its effect on the agents abroad of the several Atlantic steamship lines. The cost of returning the prohibited immigrants, and the difficulties experienced in providing for their care upon arrival at the foreign ports, have caused, I know, the steamship companies to make stringent rules to prevent their agents from selling tickets to such persons as would not be allowed to land here.

It was largely owing to the influence exerted by this Conference that Congress, in the act passed in 1882, provided that State Boards of Public Charities might be appointed by the Secretary of the Treasury to act as Commissioners of Immigration at the ports in the States in which they existed. The Secretary availed himself of this privilege, and in Massachusetts and Pennsylvania, designated the State Boards of Charities to act as United States Commissioners of Immigration at the ports of Boston and Philadelphia.

The commendation which the government officials have uniformly accorded these commissioners for the satisfactory manner in which the work has been done is ample justification for the recommendation for such appointments made by this Conference.

In papers read before this body at its last meeting in Baltimore, it was urged that the law could be more effectually executed by the appointment of federal officials. This suggestion indicated a total misunderstanding of the position held by the State Boards when acting under the appointment of the Treasury Department. They are as much federal officials as are any of the many appointees of the general government. All orders relating to immigration work are signed by them as United States Commissioners. The members of these Boards are appointed, not for political reasons, but on account of their character, and are nearly always men of prominence in the community. If, instead of State Boards, individuals were to receive the appointment, they, too, must, like the members of the Board of Charities, be citizens of the State in which the port of landing is situated. Who, then, would be more likely to make a strict scrutiny into the character of the applicant for admission to our country, who more conversant with pauperism, crime, and lunacy, and more anxious to

decrease the number of dependants, than those whose duty it is to study the best methods of prevention and treatment?

Who would be better fitted, for instance, to control the machinery for enforcing the law at the port of New York than the very eminent members of the present State Board of Public Charities? All instructions from the Secretary of the Treasury received by the State Boards come to them directly as United States Commissioners.

Let this Conference pause before it takes action likely to disparage the influences of the State Boards. They are in most instances its creation; and, the more widely their ability to aid in the care and treatment of the dependent classes is recognized, the stronger will be their hold on the popular will. Do not let the first stab come from the house of their friends.

XII.

Penal and Reformatory Systems.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON PENAL AND REFORMATORY SYSTEMS.

It is proposed to take a general survey of the legislation relating to prisons enacted throughout the United States during the past two years (1889, 1890). Perhaps it is not too much to say that none of the sciences have made more rapid progress or achieved more marked results, within the present generation, than Prison Science. Its principles and its methods, moreover, have been ably expounded, and strenuous efforts have been made to impress them upon the public mind. As the laws of a State present a reflection, more or less perfect, of public sentiment, the contemplated review may be useful as showing how far the interests of prison reform have gained intelligent sympathy among the people, and how far they have been promoted or retarded by law.

In making this survey, the State of New York deserves the first mention by reason of an enactment surpassing in importance all other legislation of the period under review.

In the year 1889 an act was passed by the legislature of the State of New York which revised and codified the laws of the State relating to State Prisons. This enactment, commonly known as the Fassett Law, may be regarded as fairly marking an era in the history of prison legislation. It establishes a broad, comprehensive prison system, based upon philosophical principles and in accord with some of the most advanced positions of Prison Science touching the proper treatment of crim.. For breadth and completeness, the New York Statute, while not exempt from criticism, is yet, doubtless, the most scientific code of prison law that has yet been enacted on either side of the Atlantic.

The wide influence the Fassett Law is likely to exert, for some years to come, upon the course of legislation regarding prisons in

all the States, presents to the mind of your committee a sufficient reason for directing their report mainly to the consideration of the plan incorporated in this enactment. At the same time, the restricted limits of this report render it impossible to attempt any general analysis, or even a summary, of all the provisions of so extended a code. The sole object proposed is to point out such salient features of the law as seem to be especially fruitful in instruction or in suggestion bearing upon fundamental principles of Prison Science.

Before entering upon the subject, it is proper to state that, while the present writer has been allotted the task of preparing the report of the committee, the members of the committee are so numerous and remotely scattered that it has been extremely difficult for them to act as a unit in either the supervision and correction, or the indorsement, of this report. So far, therefore, as any fallacious theories or unsound criticisms may be here presented, it is but just to the other members of the committee that the writer should assume the sole responsibility for such errors, while only whatsoever is sane and of good report must be regarded as the unanimous voice of the committee.

The key-note of the Statute is struck in its opening sentence: "There shall continue to be maintained, for the security and reformation of convicts in this State, three State Prisons." The protection of the public through the *reformation* of the offender is the ground on which the prisons of New York are to be maintained; and there will be found in the Statute few traces of the antiquated theory that imprisonment is enforced for the purpose of effecting punishment and exacting retribution. This old theory of expiation still pervades most of the penal legislation of the world. The new criminal code of Italy, so highly lauded in Europe, yields the most striking modern instance. While it introduces many reforms in prison administration that are in line with the best thought, yet in its philosophy of the treatment of crime it is steeped in the retributive doctrine. Its aim, from beginning to end, is to measure the exact weight of the convict's criminality, and then, by minute gradations and through metaphysical discriminations, to mete out to him a punishment accurately commensurate with his guilt. Nothing could be more hopelessly unpractical, and nothing more unscientific or illogical. Crime is not a commodity, to be purchased at the price of punishment: it is, rather, a fever, an epidemic, against which the public must be protected by radical measures of sanitation; and imprisonment is an effective remedy

only so far as it transforms the criminal into a loyal subject of the State.

The New York Statute is based upon the sanative, as opposed to the retributive, principle, seeking as its avowed aim the reformation rather than the punishment of the prisoner. The precise nature of the reformation thus sought is sharply defined in the Statute: it is "the reasonable probability that the prisoner will live and remain at liberty without violating the law." It is believed that no more exact definition than this of the term "reformation," as an end in the treatment of convicts, has ever been offered. The end thus proposed is widely different from the moral and spiritual regeneration of the convict, lifting him into a plane of life perhaps above his natural capabilities or requiring the force of supernatural agencies. The jurisdiction of the State does not extend so far as that: the State is satisfied when the convict has abandoned the commission of crime and will simply obey the civil laws.

This result the New York Statute seeks to accomplish in two ways: first, by endowing the convict with the industrial *ability* to be self-supporting; and, secondly, by developing in him a *disposition* to support himself. This second aim appears to many, who are unfamiliar with the approved methods of treatment, visionary and chimerical; but experience has certainly demonstrated that it can be realized in the case of the majority of criminals. Without entering into any philosophical discussion, it is enough to state the conclusions which may be regarded as established, both by practice and by science, touching the methods best adapted to develop in the convict this disposition and purpose to become self-supporting. These methods consist, briefly, in bringing to bear upon the convict the same motives of self-interest and ambition, the same desires of accumulating property, of gaining the esteem of others, of securing personal happiness, which are the ordinary, commonplace forces which regulate the life of every healthy community. It is these natural and common motives, rather than a conscious moral resolve, that keep the generality of men in the paths of social order, and that are sufficient to restrain them from the commission of crime. There is a certain practical morality floating in the air of a free community: it may not be of a very refined or pure quality, but it is sufficiently bracing to keep most men from positive crime. If you can bring the convict under the dominion of the same views, aims, hopes, motives, that pervade the life of the common people, you have lifted him to a higher plane.

Not, indeed, to a very high plane: his moral development may be only incipient; but you have awakened forces in him — common, worldly forces — that will be likely to hold him back, as they have held back other men, from criminal courses.

It may be objected that the plan of reformation here presented gives greater prominence to interested and selfish motives, of no high quality, than to more elevated influences which address themselves to the moral and religious nature. But it must not be forgotten that we are dealing with a very debased and abnormal type of humanity, and its elevation must begin at a low degree: the first step must be only to the grade next above the starting-point. The first aim should be to make the convict like other men in a healthy community,— not better than other men. Moral and religious influences are indispensable; but they will reach directly one convict, while the aims and ambitions of common life will reach twenty. And, when you have imbued the convict with the hopes and motives that are the controlling incentives of a free community, you have prepared the most fruitful soil for subsequent moral growth and religious development. Under any theory of either the nature or the method of reformation, the first condition of its success lies in the individual treatment of the prisoners. Convicts can never be reformed in the mass, any more than the patients in a general hospital can be cured by one uniform regimen. Each convict presents a distinct personality, which must be subjected to separate diagnosis and treatment. The first step requires an accurate knowledge of the history, the environment, the special characteristics, the distinctive susceptibilities and capabilities of every prisoner; and in each case a minute record must be kept by which to measure the effect of the treatment, to test the degree of progress made, to note the particular direction in which improvement seems hopeful, or a special capacity manifests itself and gives promise of possible development.

The provisions of the New York Statute requiring the maintenance of an individual record regarding each convict are imperative, and they contain all that can be asked for in an act of general legislation. The individualizing process begins at the very moment of conviction. It is made the duty of the court, before passing sentence, "to ascertain by the examination of each convict on oath, and in addition to such oath by such other evidence as can be obtained, whether such convict had learned and practised any mechanical trade, and, in like manner, such other facts tending to indicate the causes of

the criminal character or conduct of such convict as to the court shall seem proper or desirable." The statement so made up is to be included in a certified copy of the sentence, and accompanies the convict to the prison: it is the opening chapter of the convict's biographic record. This record is continued by constant entries during the progress of the imprisonment, covering (in the language of the Statute) "such items as may indicate the causes of the criminal character or conduct of the prisoner, and also a record of the demeanor, education, and labor of the prisoner." Contributions to the record are required from every prison officer coming in contact with the prisoner. In it are entered notes of his habits, his degree of instruction, a description of his person and of his bodily health, the progress made by him in education, his moral conduct. And thus, so far as such an object can be accomplished through legislation, the life of each prisoner passes under the constant searching scrutiny of the prison officers.

Each prisoner is to receive instruction in the useful branches of an English education, the time devoted to which shall not be less than an average of one hour and a half daily: he is also to receive religious and moral instruction, and his spiritual wants are to be ministered to by the chaplain. Every prisoner physically capable is to be employed at "hard labor for not to exceed eight hours of each day" other than Sundays and public holidays; and on Sunday he is required to attend religious services in the prison, and in the afternoon to receive from the chaplain religious and moral instruction in his cell. The scheme of convict life thus outlined, with its "full and accurate record" day by day, can hardly fail to disclose to the prison officers the intimate personality, the inmost life and character, of each separate prisoner. It furnishes the proper and indispensable basis for the "indeterminate sentence," the most important feature, perhaps, of the New York Statute.

The act provides that, whenever any male person over eighteen years of age is convicted of felony, the court, instead of sentencing him for a definite term, may pronounce an indeterminate sentence of imprisonment for a term with only minimum and maximum limits specified, those minimum and maximum limits being the ones prescribed by law for the particular crime committed. The warden, chaplain, physician, and principal keeper of each prison, together with the State Superintendent of State Prisons, are constituted a Board of Commissioners of paroled prisoners for such prison. And each

prisoner whose minimum term of sentence has expired may appear before such Board and apply for his release upon parole, or for an absolute discharge. The applicant is personally known to all the members of the Board except the State Superintendent. His life in prison has passed under their constant observation and scrutiny, and they have written out from day to day the record of his career and his character. If it appears to the Board that there is a reasonable probability that the applicant will live at liberty without violating the law, they may authorize his release upon parole, the parole to continue until the expiration of the maximum term of his sentence unless he be sooner granted an absolute discharge. During this period of conditional release the prisoner is liable to be apprehended and returned to prison, if any member of the Board shall have reasonable cause to believe that the prisoner "has violated his parole, and has lapsed or is probably about to lapse into criminal ways or company." In case of such re-arrest, the prisoner is to remain imprisoned for a term equal to the unexpired maximum term of his sentence, unless sooner released by the Commissioners. Such is the rough outline of the scheme of indeterminate sentence and release on parole contained in the New York Statute.

The indeterminate sentence is the only one that is logically defensible. To sentence a burglar to a definite term of five years' imprisonment is, positively, just as absurd as to send a lunatic to an insane asylum to be confined there exactly five years. Both the burglar and the lunatic should be confined until *cured*. Neither should be released until it becomes safe for the community that he should be at large. No human intelligence can foretell, at the outset, how long the confinement ought to last. Very possibly, it ought to last until terminated by death. The restriction of the indeterminate sentence within minimum and maximum limits is equally indefensible on principle. The public protection, being the sole reason for the imprisonment, ignores all limitations of time; and the public safety is the only condition of release.

In practical affairs, however, it is often hazardous to adopt too implicitly the deductions of pure logic. It must not be forgotten that the indeterminate sentence is only part of a whole system of reform. It presupposes, and is conditioned upon, a plan of treatment that will train and fit the convict for release. Otherwise, the indeterminate sentence without limits would be practically equivalent in most cases to a life sentence. Juries would soon hesitate to find verdicts of

guilty which involved imprisonment for life, and many felons would escape conviction. The prisons, too, being relieved by few discharges, would speedily become overflooded, far beyond their possible capacity, by the inflowing tide. It is easy to see that the indeterminate sentence, if adopted with logical rigor, *without* the complement of a reforming system, might, and perhaps would not be unlikely, in a very few years, to effect a dangerous revolution in the whole prison establishment and penal administration of a State. Until the State has demonstrated the efficiency of its prison system of treatment positively and actually to reform its prisoners, it is unsafe, it is fairly dangerous, to apply the indeterminate sentence without careful limitations and restrictions. The time has not yet arrived when the maximum and minimum limits of the indeterminate sentence can prudently be dispensed with in the State of New York: the *régime* of its State prisons is as yet too barren of the fruits of reform.

But, with the maximum and minimum limits, the indeterminate sentence provided by the New York Statute would itself operate, it is believed, as an influential aid in stimulating the prisoner to fit himself for release. And possibly there may be cause for regret that the act did not make the pronouncing of this sentence, thus limited, imperative upon the courts, and not permissive. The regret is suggested by the fact that the courts have practically ignored this provision of the Statute, and very few indeterminate sentences have been pronounced under it within the two years that have elapsed since its enactment. There is danger that the most important feature of the law may become a dead letter through judicial inaction. It cannot be denied that the judiciary, in general, has not shown an active disposition to co-operate in efforts toward prison reform, and has often failed to manifest even an intelligent interest in the results that have been actually achieved. The conservative habits and traditions of the bench are hardly favorable to legislative innovations; and yet such innovations are the necessary condition of an improved prison system.

Those provisions of the New York Statute that relate to the *labor of the prisoners* present features that are both interesting and novel. Mention has already been made of the minute regarding the convict's industrial acquirements and previous environments which must accompany the sentence of conviction. The information thus furnished aids in forming a basis of classification; and it is made the duty of the warden to divide the prisoners into three separate classes or

grades. The language of the act in defining these classes is subject to criticism, but possibly it may not cause embarrassment in its practical application. The first grade includes all those prisoners who appear to be corrigible. The third grade comprises the few who are imbecile and those who appear to be insubordinate or incorrigible. This would seem to comprise all; but the rest of the prisoners (if there are any remaining), who must also appear to be incorrigible, form the second class. In general terms, the first class is made up of those who seem hopeful subjects of reformation; the second and third classes, of the more vicious and the most vicious, both appearing to be incorrigible. The act contains ample provisions for the separation of these classes from each other and for the degradation or promotion from one grade to another. The labor of the prison (which, by the way, is exclusively on the public account and piece-price plans, and not under the contract system) is distributed and administered with special reference to this classification of the prisoners. The labor of the prisoners of the first grade "shall be directed with reference to fitting the prisoner to maintain himself by honest industry after his discharge from imprisonment, as the primary or sole object of such labor"; and they may be employed "at hard labor for industrial training and instruction solely, even though no useful or salable products result from their labor."

In the second grade, the labor is to be "directed primarily to the production of the greatest amount and value of useful and salable products, but secondarily to fitting the prisoners to maintain themselves by honest industry after their discharge from imprisonment, even though their labor be rendered thereby less productive."

The labor of the third grade is to be manual labor or the manufacturing, without machinery, of articles needed in the public institutions of the State.

The discriminations on which this scheme is based are thoroughly admirable. Reformation is made not only the primary, but the sole, aim so long as reformation seems attainable. But, where prisoners prove impervious to reformative influence, their labor is directed toward the re-imbursement of the charges which their conviction and imprisonment have imposed on the State; although even then the merciful effort is made to *fit* them for self-maintenance by honest industry after their discharge.

There is another striking provision of the act which must not be overlooked. It is that which provides for the allowance to prisoners

who conduct themselves well, of compensation to an amount not exceeding ten per cent. of the earnings of the prison. The sums so allowed may be applied to the purchase of books, instruments, or special instruction for the prisoner, or to the aid of his dependent relatives; and any balance standing to his credit at discharge is paid, under proper regulations, to the prisoner himself. This feature of the law, placing it in the power of the prisoner to earn and to save money, is of incalculable importance,— principally, in teaching him to be provident and to know the value of money, and, subordinately, in yielding a fund to aid him in establishing himself in life after his discharge. It is regretted, however, that the act awards this allowance as a reward for *good conduct*, and not as a compensation for *labor*. The first lesson the convict must learn is the value of labor. For him the only road to self-support, to honesty, to success in life, is productive industry; and in the world it is labor only that earns and is entitled to compensation. This useful disciplinary training the law just misses by making good conduct, and not labor, the object of remuneration.

In closing this hasty review of the New York Statute, the flexibility of its system deserves commemoration. Its provisions are not cast in minute and unyielding forms, but possess the elasticity that admits of growth and modification in practical working. A large discretion is left, as it ought to be, to the warden, who remains absolutely free in the choice of all his keepers and subordinates, and is responsible for the general result. The act purports to define only the outlines and the controlling principles of a system, the details and working plans of which are committed to the warden and superintendent. More than this no act of legislation can wisely attempt. The excellence of a system of prison law affords no guarantee or criterion of the success of any prison operated under it. Nothing can supply the place of a commanding personality in the warden, inspiring the whole administration of the prison. Where that is lacking, failure is inevitable: where that is present, the law can only open to it a wider scope and efficiency. Most of the defects of the New York Statute can be rendered practically harmless by a capable and zealous administration; and the defects themselves are only minor blemishes upon a law of remarkable breadth and beneficence.

Departing now from the State of New York, and extending the view over the entire country, the indeterminate sentence has gained a permanent footing in the following States: Massachusetts, New

York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, Wisconsin, and Colorado. In these States, however, except New York, this form of sentence is made applicable to first offenders only, and with certain exceptions, or is limited to reformatories or houses of refuge. The New York Statute carries it much further than has been attempted anywhere else, making the sentence applicable to every male person over sixteen years of age convicted of felony which is punishable by imprisonment for a fixed term in State Prison. There are reasons for excepting children under sixteen years of age, but it is not so apparent why women alone should be excluded from the benefits of the act. In all the States where the indeterminate sentence has been adopted it has been with the minimum and maximum limits. The pronouncing of this sentence is also made permissive and left to the discretion of the court, except in Colorado, where it is imperative in the cases prescribed.

Several of the States have adopted, in a cautiously limited way, the conditional release on parole, without the indeterminate sentence, as the States of Vermont, New Jersey, Kentucky, and South Dakota. The next nearest approach to the indeterminate sentence in most of the Northern and in several of the Southern States consists in the allowance of good time as a stimulant to good conduct.

Within the past two years acts have been passed allowing prisoners an opportunity to gain money, either by their labor or deserving conduct, in the States of Wisconsin, Illinois, California, and New York.

In 1889 comprehensive laws for the regulation and government of prisons were passed by the States of Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Colorado, and California. These laws were carefully prepared, and are specially significant as indicating in those States an alert public sentiment in favor of the effective treatment of crime.

In the same year New Jersey created a commission for the establishment of a reformatory for first offenders between the ages of sixteen and thirty. This commission has been diligently employed, and their action can hardly fail to produce striking results, both in the direct improvement of the prison system of New Jersey and in the enlistment of public opinion in support of reform measures.

Acts substantially identical in form were passed in 1889 in Pennsylvania and Illinois, adopting the use of the Bertillon system for the registration and identification of convicts in all the prisons of those States, and applying it to all felon prisoners. These were followed in 1890

by the enactment of a similar law in Massachusetts. These statutes provide for furnishing the information gained by the use of the system to the officers of prisons of such other States as may adopt the same or a similar system. This is the first establishment of the Bertillon system in this country, although it has been for some years extensively used in Europe. An interesting popular account of the system written by M. Bertillon himself is published in the current May issue of the *Forum*. The development of the plan is a triumph of ingenuity, and the accuracy and immense practical value of its results are beyond question. Its adaptability to our own country will be dependent upon its concurrent adoption by the several States. It is earnestly hoped that the initiative taken by the States of Pennsylvania, Illinois, and Massachusetts, may be speedily followed by similar legislation in the other States, and that, ultimately, the highest utility of the system may be secured by the establishment of a central bureau, where the measurements taken throughout the country shall be summarized and registered for the common use.

Turning now to the southern part of the United States, the session laws of 1889 and 1890, so far as they furnish any gauge of public sentiment, show the continued absence of an active, intelligent interest in prison reform. The lease system appears to hold its position with undiminished tenacity; and, although some measures have been passed, as in Tennessee, Arkansas, Florida, and Alabama, obviously designed to secure the more humane treatment of convicts, there prevails an apparent apathy regarding the methods or the principles of any scientific system of reform. Thus we find that Texas requires its jail convicts to perform their work on the public streets or roads, and that Maryland enacts that the convicts in Dorchester County jail shall work on the public roads or streets of the town of Cambridge or be "hired out." It is gratifying, however, to read this law passed in Delaware in 1889: "That hereafter no female convicted of any crime in this State shall be whipped or made to stand in the pillory"; also, to find that South Carolina has empowered the directors of the State Penitentiary to purchase a farm or farms, to be worked and planted by convicts under the supervision of the directors; also, that the State of Georgia, in December, 1890, appointed a committee to report as to the propriety of a revision of the criminal laws of the State, even though among the declared purposes of such revision are greater *economy* in enforcing the laws and a proper *adjustment of penalties to offences*.

By far the most important act passed in the Southern States within the period under review is one enacted in Virginia in 1890, incorporating the Prison Association of Virginia. It invests the Association with very large powers, and those not merely of visitation and inspection, but of executive action. The Association is empowered to establish houses of correction, workhouses, and other institutions for the reception of such youthful offenders, vagrants, disorderly persons, or persons convicted of petty crimes as the courts may see fit to commit to the charge of the Association. The government and management of the prisons thus to be established by the Association, and of their inmates, are intrusted to the Association itself, with the same powers as are by law conferred upon the proper authorities of the State Penitentiary with regard to the persons committed to it. These are grave powers for a State to delegate to a benevolent association; but able, enlightened, and zealous men are at the head of the Association, and are directing its operations with vigor and knowledge. The Association is confronted with an opportunity and a field, never before so opened in the South, for the enlightenment and awakening of public sentiment and for the introduction of a sound prison reform. Great possibilities and great hopes, not for Virginia only, but for the whole South, are centred in the Prison Association of Virginia.

In concluding this review, which has presented many bright and hopeful features, it must be confessed that there is one point of view from which a dark cloud with scarcely a rift hangs over the whole country. The legislation of the period casts not a ray of light on the county jails of America. One can hardly gather from the statute books of 1889 and 1890 that there is such an institution in the United States as the county jail. Not a single measure looking to the renovation of the county jail system, or to such radical correction of its evils as can only be wrought by a thorough revolution and reorganization, has been enacted from Maine to California. The county jail is the one American institution about which profound harmony reigns universal: it excites no sectional jealousies and stirs no strife of factions. Here at last the country knows no North, no South, no East, no West. No single State is likely to claim the preeminence of having the *worst* county jails; but, if such a rivalry should arise, it would be extremely difficult to decide to whom to award the palm. That the fulness of time will come when the tide of prison reform will rise even to the county jails and wash them

away no one can doubt, but that day has not yet even dawned. Agitation and struggle, nerved by invincible faith, may make slow progress; but they are the hope of the world.

EUGENE SMITH,
CHARLES A. COLLIN,
CHARLTON T. LEWIS,
For the Committee.

THE LEADING PRINCIPLES OF MODERN PRISON SCIENCE.

BY PROFESSOR C. A. COLLIN, CORNELL UNIVERSITY.

The object of criminal punishment is the improvement of the offender. This is the fundamental principle of modern prison science, the supreme test of all prison methods. To those who hold the retributive theory of criminal punishment, and demand pain and suffering for the offender proportionate to the heinousness of his offence, we say that there is no pain and suffering more severe than that which necessarily accompanies the healing process. The lazy man is most severely punished by being compelled to work, the drunkard by being compelled to keep sober, the dissolute and unclean man by being compelled to live cleanly. If retributive suffering be the prime motive in the treatment of criminals, suffering enough to satisfy the most stringent demands of cold and merciless justice will be found in the cuttings and burnings of healing surgery, in the pressing and crowding of the man of deformed and dissolute habits into the strait-jacket of righteous forms of living.

To those who declare the object of criminal punishment to be the protection of society from the criminal, we say that the transformation of the criminal into a serviceable member of society is the only effective protection of society against him. The mere temporary caging of the criminal, as a wild beast, is a protection to society for the time being, it is true. But if, when he is let out of his cage, he is worse than when he went in,— more inhuman, more brutal, more bitterly disposed toward his fellows,— he may be more wary and cunning thereafter, but he will be more dangerous to society than before he was caged.

The demands of the old-fashioned retributive justice and the

demands of modern utilitarian expediency are both fully met in the sound Christian doctrine that the criminal is a man and a brother, not a wild beast, *hostis humani generis*, and that we who are strong should be healing physicians to the weak, not hesitating to cut and cauterize where surgery is needed, to administer healing discomforts, to tenderly bind up the wounds, and to refresh the famished soul with human sympathy when the natural appetite is awakened for that health-giving sympathy which condemns while it comforts.

To those who still believe in the extermination of any class of criminals by premature death, modern prison science, as I conceive, has little to say, except to urge that, if death be the penalty, it be made as speedy and painless, as secret and mysterious, as possible, with the lowest possible minimum of repulsiveness and barbarism. Capital punishment is not within the domain of prison science proper, which aims to preserve life rather than to destroy it. Capital punishment in primitive society was clearly necessary and right. But the progress of civilization has always been a process of eliminating capital punishment, and it is at least questionable whether the final elimination is not near at hand. The logic of events seems to demonstrate that in the natural order of civilization capital punishment must go, and that reformers cannot much hasten or conservatives much retard its going.

With the single exception, therefore, of those who believe in capital punishment for certain criminals, all theories upon the object of criminal punishment are in harmony with the proposition which is the corner-stone of modern prison science, that the object of punishment is the improvement of the offender.

The improvement of the offender does not mean the reform or reformation of the offender in the sense in which those terms are often abused, of a guaranty against any future commission of crime. Where is the man for whom such a guaranty can be given? The improvement of the criminal by prison treatment means no such reformation. Right prison treatment promises the establishment of regular habits of physical health and labor, increased ability to live by orderly methods, an awakening and strengthening of impulses to orderly life, a mind compelled to habits of thought in new lines, a purified and renovated body, and corresponding contributions to the health of the soul. The rightly managed prison can promise some such improvement and strengthening. It cannot promise what the church has never been able to promise its most devoted saints,—

absolute imperviousness to evil temptations, or absolute security against ever again falling under their power. The cause of prison reform has sometimes suffered from the exaggerated claims and promises of its over-zealous friends. Occasional relapses into crime by criminals who have graduated from reformatory treatment have, by like counter-exaggerations, been represented as demonstrating the futility of all reformatory treatment.

The true conception of a prison is, therefore, that of a hospital for the remedial treatment of depraved bodies and diseased souls.

The first essential step in such hospital treatment for the ordinary prisoner has been heretofore underestimated or ignored. Ordinary common sense has always recognized the mysteriously intimate interdependence of soul and body. But the close relation of abnormal physical conditions to moral and intellectual obliquity has been startlingly demonstrated by the course of scientific experiments upon living men which has been carried on for the last five or six years at the Elmira Reformatory. Nowhere outside of a prison could the opportunity for such experiments be had; and their results have aroused the intense interest, not only of practical prison managers and of students of prison science, but of students of physiological psychology as well.

This new demonstration of the importance of physical treatment in the mental and moral culture of the lower orders of humanity is fairly entitled to be called the latest and most important discovery in prison science.

Men not specially diseased, but so overloaded with animalism as to seem scarcely half-witted, who were so oxlike, dull, and stupid that they were unable to perform the ordinary task-work of the shops, and were wholly unable to make any progress beyond the merest rudiments in the reformatory schools, were taken out of shop and school and put through a severe regimen, including Turkish baths, massage, special diet, gymnastics, and exercises demanding a constantly increasing quickness and alertness of both physical and mental action. The mental and moral transformation resulting has been even more conspicuous than the physical. When restored to the shops and school, after from six to nine months of such training, with the exception of a few who were actually *non compos*, these men not only started on their work in both shop and school at an even pace with their fellows, but progressed regularly through the curriculum of industrial and intellectual education for which that reforma-

tory is famous. New and laudable ambitions were quickly aroused, the sullen temperament disappeared, the souls of the men were revivified as well as their minds and bodies.

The average criminal upon his entrance into prison needs to be placed at once in the hands of the physician and physical trainer, not merely to get the effects of whiskey, tobacco, or other dissipations out of his system, but to get him in condition for his work. The gymnasium or its substantial equivalent is as necessary to the well-equipped prison as the school-room or the chapel.

Having got the man in condition, he should be kept at work during nearly the entire time of his waking hours at the highest gait of activity of which he is reasonably capable. His ordinary energies should be doubled, and still so fully occupied that he has little chance to think of anything besides his work. But his work must be laid out in two lines,— the shop and the school.

The necessity of work in the shops for successful prison discipline is generally admitted. But there are many pious and intelligent men who are afraid to educate criminals. This fear is due largely to the survival of the old tradition of criminal heroics, doubtless once true, when the best and bravest men were such dangerous criminals that they were burned at the stake or hung and quartered as traitors against a tyrant. But the modern criminal is rather a sneak, a coward, and, *pro tanto*, a fool; for modern criminality is stupid folly or unbridled passion. Intellectual education, instead of making the criminal more dangerous, makes him less dangerous, because it necessarily tends to reduce his criminality, to make him more of a man, indeed, but less of a criminal. Intellectual education, of necessity, broadens the mind and reveals the folly of crime. Moreover, healthy, vigorous intellectual activity cannot be otherwise than morally invigorating.

In the second place, it is necessary that the mind of the prisoner should be intensely occupied in new channels, leaving the least possible room for his old habits of thought. Therefore, his studies should be so advanced as always to require a severe struggle for their mastery.

But the improving value of work and study depends chiefly on its spontaneity. How is spontaneity to be aroused under the *quasi*-slavery of prison compulsion? By making the fact apparent to the prisoner that it will be for his interest to work faster and study harder. Here comes in one of the most valuable elements of the

indeterminate sentence. The prisoner can earn his freedom by his progress in work and study: his imprisonment will be prolonged by laziness and neglect. No stronger motive could be given him to keep up the work by which he is unconsciously establishing the new line of habits which is to be the basis of his salvation from criminal ways.

In addition, give the prisoner opportunity to earn a little money by extra work beyond his required task, and to lose his earnings by falling below requirements, and you accustom him to the play of the same motives which impel an honest man to earn an honest living in the same line of activity.

Such a system necessarily involves the classification or grading of the prisoners, with possibilities of promotion and reduction in rank.

How different must be the hopeful activities and the chastening disappointments of a prisoner working under such motives from the slavish, sullen submission to the necessity of doing the time of a fixed sentence, under the old system!

But the critical period in the treatment of the criminal is not during his imprisonment, but upon his discharge. Good resolutions are easily and very commonly formed before leaving prison, but now comes the test. The sudden freedom after long restraint is in itself almost intoxicating. Gladly, perhaps, would he honestly work for a living; but who will employ him? Here comes in again a valuable element, the supreme value of the indeterminate sentence. The prisoner is not given sudden freedom. He is outside the prison walls, but still a prisoner, held by an invisible, elastic chain which may draw him back at any moment. He goes directly and cautiously to employment obtained for him before his release on parole. The strongest possible pressure is put upon him, during this most critical period, to re-enforce the habits of honest labor while he is a prisoner outside the prison walls which were cultivated while he was a prisoner within. If he is successful for the first half-year or year, he is fairly launched on an orderly career. He has made the beginning of a record of honest character; and we will grant him absolute discharge from further remedial treatment in the prison hospital, and bid him God-speed in all good works.

It would be easy to persuade the legislatures to adopt substantially the principles of prison administration thus briefly suggested but for one difficulty; to wit, the prison labor problem, which is an exceed-

ingly delicate subject for practical politicians to handle. While there is much misapprehension and some ignorance on the part of the leaders of labor organizations as to the effect of prison labor competition, and while there is some demagogism on the part of legislators with reference to the same subject, nevertheless I am strongly inclined to affirm that there has also been some corresponding misapprehension on the same subject on the part of prison managers and prison reformers, who may have treated the subject too cavalierly, and who may have failed to appreciate the situation from the workingmen's point of view. The effect of the competition of prison laborers very easily admits of distortion and exaggeration. The labor organizations have actually believed that they had a grievance against prison labor, and have had just enough basis in truth for the belief to justify their exaggerated conception of the evil. There certainly has been an occasional tendency of the prisons to wholly absorb certain lines of industry, and to cut the prices of manufactured products. The tendency to wholly absorb any industry is equally injurious to prison laborers and to outside laborers; for the prison laborers are thereby less likely to obtain employment in the lines which they have pursued in prison, and the outside laborers will lose their occupations. Justice is the great solvent of all social conflicts, and there is much justice in the claim of the labor organizations that there should be a limit upon the extent to which any one industry should be conducted in the prisons. It was this concession which won over the labor organizations, and the politicians who believed with them or feared them, to the support of the Fassett Prison Bill in New York in 1889. The provision of that bill that the number of laborers engaged in any one industry in the prisons should not be more than a certain percentage of the total number of laborers engaged in the same industry in the entire State, is the true principle, and was at the same time the strong point and the weak point of the bill. It was the strong point, because it solved the one great problem of the situation, upon a just basis, which was accepted by all parties to the controversy, and thus rendered the passage of the bill a possibility. It has at the same time proved the weak point of the bill, as was expected; for here have been centred all of the attacks arising from the old discontent. Before the bill became a law certain business interests were enabled to procure amendments excluding certain industries entirely from the State prisons; and, since the law was enacted, other interests have attempted to have their industries also excluded altogether, or to have

the number of prisoners engaged therein limited to a specified number rather than to a certain percentage. The easy answer to such proposals has for the most part been effectual; to wit, that, if one industry is excluded, the others will all follow in succession, and the result will be the old difficulty of the abolition of prison labor altogether,—the absurdity of which the labor organizations themselves admit.

RECENT OHIO LEGISLATION.

BY GENERAL R. BRINKERHOFF.

Since this report was written and forwarded to the President of the Conference, the General Assembly of the State of Ohio has put upon its statute book three separate enactments which are too important not to be included in the summary of legislation presented in the report of the committee; and I therefore make a brief supplemental report. The first is an act providing that, wherever the construction of a county jail will permit, the absolute separation of prisoners shall be maintained, so that no prisoner shall come into association or acquaintance with any other prisoner, and the enforcement of the requirements of this act is mandatory upon all officials in charge of county jails, and upon common pleas judges, who have always had the making of rules for the government of jails.

In England for many years a law of Parliament has made the separation of prisoners awaiting trial a fundamental requirement of the prison system of that kingdom; but, in the United States, Ohio occupies the proud position of being the first State in the Union to put upon her statute book this fundamental principle of prison reform.

In Ohio, upon the enforcement of this law, thirty jails at least will cease to be compulsory schools of crime.

Ohio also has the honor of being the first State in the Union to apply the parole system to prisons other than reformatories, and without the indeterminate sentence; and nearly seven hundred prisoners have been paroled during the five years the law has been in operation, and, upon the whole, with good results. But some abuses of administration were developed which threatened to impair the usefulness of the law, and therefore a supplemental law has been passed which requires that the parole of a prisoner shall not be considered

by the Board of Managers until the warden and chaplain shall recommend such prisoner as worthy of parole; and then a parole shall not be granted until notice of such recommendation shall have been published in at least two county newspapers of opposite politics in the county where such prisoner was convicted.

Still another law of great value was enacted in the month of April just passed; and that is a law for the organization and government of the Ohio State Reformatory, which is now approaching completion, and which has heretofore been known as the Intermediate Penitentiary. This is the most liberal and progressive law enacted in Ohio for the government of a public institution.

For the first time we have a non-partisan Board, which is made such by the appointment of six members, not more than three of whom shall be from the same political party.

The other provisions of the bill are as wise and liberal as anything contained in the Fassett Bill. All of these bills were formulated and recommended by the Board of State Charities, and their adoption without the alteration of a single sentence is the highest compliment the Board of State Charities has ever received from the law-making power. All honor is due to the General Assembly of the State of Ohio for this noble advance in penal legislation.

XIII.

The Defective Classes.

BY A. O. WRIGHT,

SECRETARY OF THE STATE BOARD OF CHARITIES AND REFORM OF WISCONSIN.

The defective classes form a series of small but very troublesome tumors upon the body politic. For various reasons, ranging all the way from the imperative need of protection to society up to those humane influences for which our century is distinguished, these classes have fallen under the more or less effective guardianship of government in all civilized countries. Private effort is also doing much to palliate or to prevent the evils which the defective classes bring on themselves and upon society at large.

I propose the following classification of the defective classes, depending upon the three divisions of the mental faculties which are generally accepted by psychologists. Insanity and idiocy are different forms of defective intellect. Crime and vice are caused by defect of the emotions or passions. And pauperism is caused by defect of the will. Blindness and deaf-mutism are defects of the senses, requiring special forms of education, but are not defects of the mind any more than the loss of an arm or a leg. Blind or deaf people properly educated are not a burden or a danger to society, as are criminals, insane persons, or paupers. Their defects are physical, not mental; and they should not be classed with persons who have these mental defects. The above classification has the advantage of starting from the centre instead of from the circumference. "The mind is the measure of the man," and it is the abnormal and defective mind which produces the mischief. Anything which fosters the abnormal and ill-regulated thoughts or passions, or which weakens the control of reason, conscience, and will over the mind, tends to produce insanity, crime, and pauperism. Everything which aids self-control reduces the tendency to these abnormalities.

The distribution of the defective classes by nationality, education, wealth, age, sex, occupation, and the like, is interesting from a scien-

tific point of view and important from a practical standpoint. A study of the distribution of insanity, crime, and pauperism, may reveal the conditions which create or foster them. And, as society has more or less control over social conditions, it may become possible to heal some of these ulcers on the body politic if we know where they are and what irritant produced them. But please notice that I say *may*, not *shall*. The small success of all effort in the past toward curing these evils ought to make social reformers modest.

First, the question of sex. Men and women are about equally afflicted with insanity. Either the causes are the same in men and women which produce insanity or they are equivalent. Heredity, worry, overwork, under-feeding, sickness, and the weaknesses of old age affect men and women equally; and the perils of childbirth and of loneliness for solitary farmers' wives are about equal to the dangers from accident and the vices to which men are exposed. But crime and pauperism are liabilities of men much more than of women. There are generally about forty times as many men as women in our prisons. The disproportion is not quite so great in some States, and is still less in European countries. In Europe there is no sentimental pity for a woman on account of her sex. But even in Europe the proportion of men to women is, perhaps, ten to one. Women do not commit crime as readily as men do: it may be from principle, it may be from cowardice, it may be from lack of temptation. And women do not become paupers as readily as men. In getting outdoor relief, it is true, women are a little ahead of men; but that is because it is easier for a woman to get poor relief than for a man. And, in fact, where outdoor relief is laxly administered, though it is the women who usually apply for it, there are often lazy men behind them, sending them for it, or else drinking up all their earnings in the comfortable consciousness that the public will support their families. So that, even in outdoor relief, it is probable that the men have a good share of the pauperism. And in poorhouses there are about twice as many men as women.

Second, as to age. About an equal number of each sex are born idiots, and remain so all their lives, so that the question of age in idiocy need not be taken into account, except that idiots are not long-lived. But insanity is a defect of mature years. Going through an insane asylum, you are struck with the general age of the patients in contrast with the youth of the attendants. This, of course, is partly caused by the fact that insanity is not very curable. Only about one-

fourth of the insane recover, a few die, and the rest end their days as chronic insane. But it is also caused by the fact that most insane are middle-aged or elderly before they become insane.

Crime is rarely committed by little children, and, when committed, is frequently excused by the law or by the judges and jury. But every visitor to a jail or State's prison must notice the comparative youthfulness of the prisoners. The average age of the convicts in State prison is twenty-seven. Or, to put it in another way, the majority of convicts in State prison are under twenty-five. The difference between twenty-seven and twenty-five is accounted for by the difference between an average and a majority. The direct opposite of this is the case with pauperism. The majority of paupers are over fifty years old. Criminals are mostly young men. Paupers are mostly old men and old women. Youth is the age of passion, and perverted passions lead to crime. The author of "The Jukes Family" says that among the descendants of Margaret, the "Mother of Criminals," it is very noticeable that in youth they were prostitutes and criminals, and in age beggars and paupers. The same perverted instincts which led them to prey upon the community took the direction of crime in the time of strength and of pauperism in the time of weakness.

The question of education is often stated as if education favored insanity and opposed crime and pauperism. As a fact, I do not think that education has so great an influence either way as many may seem to think. We were told half a century ago that it was cheaper to build school-houses than jails and poorhouses. We have dotted the country over with school-houses, and we find that jails and poorhouses are just as necessary as ever. But some one may say that this is because there is no effective compulsory education, and because we have an unusual number of ignorant foreigners coming to our shores. But this is sufficiently answered by looking at Germany with its homogeneous population and compulsory education, and compulsory religious as well as secular education at that. In Germany crime and pauperism and insanity are increasing, as they are with us. Criminals, paupers, and insane all average a little below the rest of the community in education. Their smaller knowledge and less natural ability make them break down into insanity more easily and also more easily drift into crime or pauperism. The best statistics of criminals have been kept for over half a century by the Eastern Pennsylvania Penitentiary. The result of these statistics

seems to show that idleness rather than ignorance is the mother of crime. An investigation, which I made a few years ago by personal inquiries from poorhouse to poorhouse in Wisconsin, satisfied me that about one-third of the paupers are made so by idleness, one-third by liquor, and one-third by all other causes combined. In my judgment, the idleness which makes truants from school, and therefore poor scholars, leads to crime or pauperism in many cases; and, in these cases, it is not ignorance which is the cause of crime, but idleness which is the cause of both ignorance and crime.

The question of social standing is not of as great importance in this country as in Europe. Paupers, of course, do not come from the wealthy or the middle classes. Many of the laboring classes do drop into pauperism through misfortune or vice. But many of the paupers are not even of the laboring class, but come from the outcasts of society. The same is the case with the criminals. They do not come chiefly from the wealthy or middle classes. Some of them come from the laboring classes. But they are very largely from the very outcasts of society. The insane are found in all classes in considerable numbers. But the laboring class furnishes more than its share of insane, and the outcasts an immense proportion to their number. Criminals and paupers and tramps frequently become insane: I should say ten times as many as from the same number of average humanity.

The advantages and disadvantages of city life have often been talked of. Many people suppose that the excitement and strain of city life conduces to insanity. Others say that the loneliness of country life has the same effect. An English physician has taken the pains to tabulate the statistics of insanity for the city of London for forty years, and for several purely agricultural counties in the south of England with about the same population for the same period, and finds that there is no difference between city and country in the amount of insanity. But for crime all statistics show clearly that it is concentrated in the cities, which are the refuge of the criminal classes, and the nurseries of young criminals in the neglected street children. Pauperism is greater in the city than in the country, though this may arise from the corrupt municipal governments, encouraging pauperism to win votes.

The effects of climate have not been much considered. But I believe it will be found that warm climates do not have so great a proportion of insanity as cold climates. It is certain that in Europe Greece has a much less proportion of insanity than Norway. In this

country there is much less insanity in the South than in the North in proportion to population. A part of this is due to the negroes in the South having a small proportion of insanity, and the foreigners in the North having a large proportion. But it is possible that climate has also something to do with it. I cannot discover that climate has anything to do with crime. Pauperism is increased in cold climates by the greater difficulty of getting a bare subsistence.

Much has been said about the rapid increase of the defective classes, especially of the insane. Statistics show this both in Europe and America. But statistics of the mere numbers of insane at any given time are very deceptive. The greater humanity with which the insane are treated now than a hundred or even twenty-five years ago has preserved their lives, and thereby caused an accumulation of the insane. This greatly increases the numbers who are alive at any given time, but does not show that any more persons become insane in any one year than ever. Careful statistics have been kept in England with reference to the latter point, and it is found that there was an increase in the proportion of commitments to the total population up to a recent time, but that it now seems to have reached its highest point and become stationary. It is believed that the increase in the commitments was caused partly by the discovery and placing in institutions of cases that would otherwise have been hidden at home, and partly by calling things insanity which formerly would have been called by some other name, such as senile dementia, epilepsy, eccentricity, or primary dementia. I believe that these statistics show that insanity is not now increasing faster in England than the population.

In the United States insanity is obviously increasing very rapidly. In ten years in Wisconsin the insane under public care have increased from about 1,700 to over 3,000. This is partly due to the causes discussed above. But it is also due to another fact, to which I think I was the first to call attention, that the ratio of insanity to the population is much greater in the older States than in the newer ones and in the older counties of Wisconsin than in the newer ones. The rapid increase of crime in this country is doubtless an incident of the rapid growth of city population. But probably the more careful administration of the laws has increased the number of prisoners, while the system of reformatories for boys and girls and all the good influences of Christian civilization have been resisting the increase of crime. It is noteworthy that a better prison system in England than we have

in this country, joined to the private reformatory work of all kinds, has brought the increase of crime to a stop ; and that there is absolutely less crime in Great Britain now than there was fifteen years ago, notwithstanding the increase of population.

The same causes have made an increase of pauperism in this country,—the growth of cities and the foolish or corrupt use of public money in aiding undeserving applicants for poor relief.

To a considerable extent these three defective classes link into one another. It is hard to say whether a tramp is a pauper or a criminal. Many criminals may be called insane, and some are so adjudged when they have money or friends to help them, and some insane have criminal tendencies. A very large per cent. of criminals become insane in prison or afterward. A considerable number of paupers become insane. The children of the one class pass easily into the other class. Street children who are the children of misfortune are easily drawn into crime. Here and there in our country, and in every other one, are knots of defectives all tangled up together, families closely related furnishing a whole population of criminals, paupers, idiots, and lunatics among themselves. Such was the family in Ulster County, New York, called by Dr. Dugdale "the Jukes family," to disguise their real name. Such is the "tribe of Ishmael" recently described by Mr. McCulloch in Indianapolis. The interchangeability of these defects is very clearly shown in these cases.

What are we now doing with the defective classes? With some exceptions, all civilized nations are pursuing the following lines of policy : Pauperism is *relieved* and *discouraged*. The treatment fluctuates between the extremes of lavish relief and stringent discouragement, but is generally a compromise between those two extremes. Insanity is *cured*, if possible ; if not, it is usually *protected* in institutions of some sort. Crime is *punished* in prisons and *prevented* in reformatories.

These methods express the average wisdom of the present generation, which is far in advance of what has previously been done for the defective classes. It does not follow that this is the best that can possibly be done for them. In fact, here and there experiments are in progress which I believe represent not the average wisdom, but the best wisdom of our times. Here and there private societies have taken up the work of eradicating pauperism, not by relief, which often encourages it, nor by merely repressive measures, but by carrying out the motto of the charity organization societies,— "Not alms, but a

friend." And Rev. J. H. Crooker, of Madison, has recently shown that this is not a new discovery, but is a century old, when it was more fully applied to *public* poor relief than it has since been. The methods of reforming criminals and thus reducing crime have been discovered and applied in the British Isles, while in America they have been only so applied in a few places. The methods of treating the insane have been growing milder and more humane in Europe and America within a few years. In my judgment, the State Hospital of Alabama and the county asylums for the chronic insane of Wisconsin mark the highest point yet reached in the direction of liberty for the insane. At the rate of progress which we are now making, it will take a generation for the average American treatment of the defective classes to reach the standard set for pauperism by the charity organization societies, for crime by Elmira and Concord, and for insanity by the Wisconsin system of care for the chronic insane.

Our measures of treatment of the defective classes sometimes increase the very evils we mean to cure. Poor relief instead of relieving pauperism very often increases it. Insane asylums seem to increase the number of insane, prisons of criminals. This, however, is not a necessity of the case, but only an incidental evil, which needs to be guarded against.

We must also allow that our humane methods of treatment, in addition to the good effects which they have, do also tend to increase the numbers of the defective classes by prolonging their lives and by making their lot a more desirable one. I have already mentioned the accumulation of insanity by the mere prolongation of life in the insane in civilized countries. It is still a question whether this does not sufficiently account for the greater number of insane in civilized over savage countries. Where the insane are killed as witches or executed as criminals or killed by private vengeance or malice or allowed to die by neglect, and where only the robust can survive the hardships and perils of life in any case, it is not wonderful that the insane existing at any given time are few. So also with pauperism. If no poor relief is given, there will be no paupers; for some will starve, and others will steal. But crime seems to decrease with milder punishments, whether these are the causes of the decrease or only a result of the general civilization of society which is reducing both crime and punishment alike. It is also true that we discover and do something for a large number of cases now who would not be known as defectives under a less perfect administration of

government. This is one of the causes of the apparent increase of insanity, as I have already said. Crime is more completely looked after, and things are called crime now which would not have been called so a few years ago.

But, on the whole, I believe that the measures we are taking to treat the defective classes are really reducing their numbers. For one thing, we keep them shut up in institutions, where they are not allowed to propagate their kind or to practise or teach their vices. A notable exception to this is the county jail system, where prisoners are herded together in idleness to constitute schools of crime and vice. Our methods do also cure many of the defectives. About one-fourth of the insane are permanently cured. From half to two-thirds of the criminals are never convicted a second time. Many paupers and tramps do finally drop back into society again. It is of course a struggle which may be made to appear to be tending one way or the other, according as we are optimistic or pessimistic in the bent of our own minds. But I take the side of the optimist, and believe that we are gradually healing up these ulcers upon society.

The best sign of the future is that public sentiment and legislation are steadily tending in the direction of prevention as well as cure. Some measures of prevention, like the various phases of child-saving work, have been already fruitful of good results. In other cases, it is still doubtful what is best to be done in the way of prevention. But I believe the time is coming when, by the combination of public and private effort, we shall greatly reduce, if we do not entirely eradicate, the defective classes.

In my dealings with them, I am sometimes tempted to despair of humanity. But, when I look at our churches and schools, our literature and our industries, and, best of all, our happy homes, the pledge of the future, I take heart again. And I remember that, after all, the total number of prisoners, paupers, insane, and idiots in the United States is only one per cent. of the population,— a less proportion than any other civilized country has.

XIV.

Women in Charity and Reform.

THE CO-OPERATION OF WOMEN IN PHILANTHROPIC AND REFORMATORY WORK.

BY VIRGINIA T. SMITH.

The chairman of the committee on co-operation of women in philanthropic work and in the management of charitable, reformatory, and penal institutions, Clara Barton, as many a suffering soldier could testify, is a living embodiment of woman's co-operative charity. Her personal experience, the results that have followed it, and her knowledge of much that is being done in similar lines prove her especial qualifications to cover all details and to make as well as elicit from this audience, valuable suggestions. The subject belongs to her, not only by right of natural gifts, but, literally, by right of conquest. But, as she is absolutely unable to take an active part either in the presentation of facts or in the advocacy of the question, I give, as best I may, the report of the committee and the paper embodying this theme in one.

The co-operation of women in charitable work seems in itself so natural an arrangement that at first blush one hardly admits the necessity of its discussion. It is undoubtedly the true and proper method by which to work, and charities organized with such co-operation have derived a quality and power impossible to have been gained in any other way. Its results, therefore, are attracting new interest, inciting a spirit of inquiry and commendation which has heretofore never prevailed. The plan is not a novel one, nor the work so much of an experiment as many imagine; and, although until recently comparatively few societies have been thus organized, unrecognized co-operation has prevailed extensively and with happy results. The ages of cumulative business experience which men inherit, together with the practical business education which they receive, guarantee their fitness for public life. Women have not

similar inheritances, neither have they in great numbers received the special practical education which fits them in some degree for public life. For those reasons they cannot be at the start as thorough and consistent workers as men; but, in so far as they are permitted education, they are preparing to be as thorough and persistent workers as their brothers, who have so long and bravely united with the burdens of Church and State the responsibilities of philanthropic and reformatory work. With the opportunities now existing, a generation of women workers is at hand, equal to all necessary undertakings and enterprise.

That unique and unhesitating co-operation existed in honest and homely fashion in primitive times, and before women were admitted to be at all the equals of men or permitted any except the most meagre privileges of education, is evidenced by the private journal of a godly woman, bearing dates 1775, 1776, and 1777, from which, by the right of inheritance, I make the following extracts:—

Towne of Windsor, Connecticut.

Ye women of this towne, belonging to ye Church of God, do now bring ye young boys into parish meetings on week nights in our dwellings, to teach unto them manners and other dutiful behavior when they shall enter ye pews of God's house on His most holy day. This do 'tend to save the distraction of good priest,— when he is concerned in explaining free grace and election points in the sermon, which same points and heads do not seem to be over-edifying to the young, and also to help Mr. ——,— the tithing man,— a cripple, in trying to preserve order in the back seats and the pews; the reason for so much of noise and whispering being that nigh onto every able-bodied man has gone to war and so cannot keep silence and humility in his own pew. We, the women of this towne, also feel called to help ye girls of Widow G. and T., and those of other women who are not widows who are beset with work and children, and beside (more's the pity) are summat slack, to patch their stuffs and eke their petticoats, to knit their mittens and stockings and to spin flax, and at the end of the twelve bees or spells we do make them a feast in the fall of ye yeare of a sucking pig with pumpkin pie, and again in ye springe with apple turnover, custard and maple sugar. This is all for courage and happiness to them. Any girl whose marm is slack and not forehanded in faculty is much let down from privilege if not instructed into goodly ways by ye women whose service it may be to think of her future, and to be kind and patient in the helping of her.

Assuming, then, that similar methods and conditions were in being in other places, it is easy to believe that co-operation worthy of men-

tion, by women, in the work of helping the poor, has existed for many generations.

In order that we might discuss where and how it exists, and what value it is thought to possess by those who employ it, learn to what extent, if any, it has increased, and to consider the amount of public sentiment yet to be created in order to secure co-operation to those not yet employing it, and to discuss the undoubted help it may become to each and every commonwealth establishing it, we have sought to procure authentic and special information concerning this entire question, and substantially to embody the results in this report.

Letters of inquiry have been sent within the last few months to every State and Territory in the Union regarding the co-operation of women in charitable work, and the inquiries have brought returns of great value and interest, for which we feel deeply grateful, but from which, for this especial article, it is obvious that only the most condensed statements can be made.

Our first return came from the State of Maine, and earnestly acknowledges the fitness of women to aid in her charities, and reports that active effort is being made to secure women officials. A reformatory prison is urged by women of influence and character. Police matrons are employed, and three of the seven trustees of the State Industrial School are women. There is as yet no State Board of Charities.

New Hampshire employs women to some extent in her charitable and reformatory institutions. One of the trustees of the State Industrial School is a woman, and women are among the members of the Board of the Orphans' Home, State Normal School, and other State institutions. Women teach in these places and supervise in the women's department in county and State insane asylums, and are employed as police matrons.

Vermont reports a matron employed in the State Prison, Reform School, and House of Correction, and numbers of women in places of trust in insane hospitals and homes for children.

Massachusetts has women on its State Board of Charities. The law also permits them to hold positions in various institutions of the State. In 1853 an Industrial School for Girls was established, where the children are well trained in housework, and placed out when of a suitable age and attainments, and are watched over in places found for them by the managers, each lady having a certain number of girls assigned to her supervision.

The Associated Charities was founded in 1879, which has resulted in a very great improvement in the administration of all relief, and in the adoption of very advanced views as to the duties and responsibilities of relief-givers; but, apart from this, a great educational work has been done, work which has not been confined merely to the most degraded and suffering, but has reached the whole mass of the people directly or indirectly.

The reformatory prison for women was opened in 1877, and has been entirely in charge of women from the first; and they have received the commendation of the State. In 1884 two women were added to the Board of Trustees of the Lunatic Asylum. They have done good work and have been a support to the superintendent.

Rhode Island reports a Prisoners' Aid Association officered by women. There is also a Woman's Board of Visitors for the penal aud charitable institutions in which women and children are protected and restrained. Providence has inaugurated the police matron system. The local charities, as day nurseries, orphanages, etc., are efficiently carried on by women.

Connecticut has women on her State Board of Charities, and one woman on the boards of management of each of the eight county homes for children. A matron is also employed at the State's Prison. The State Insane Asylum also has its matron, while its orphan asylums and many of its local charities are entirely managed by women.

The plan of finding homes for neglected children was instituted and practised for years by a woman who afterward helped to secure its working throughout the State, by a law removing children from almshouses and bad homes, placing them in public temporary homes, and then in private families. A woman has recently been elected on a local school board,— the first appointment of the kind in the State. A women is now actively engaged in establishing a home for incurable children.

New York State swarms with charities, many of which are largely carried on by women. Women are reported on the State Board of Charity, on school boards, and are also doing good work as police matrons.

The Women's Educational and Industrial Union of Buffalo has nearly one thousand members; and Catholics, Hebrews, and Protestants work most harmoniously together.

New York State has a law requiring the appointment of women in

State Hospitals for the Insane, and five out of eight hospitals have complied with the law.

The Hon. William P. Letchworth, a member of the New York State Board of Charities, says, in writing on the subject, "I think that women should co-operate with men in every branch of charitable and reform work."

Mr. Kellogg, of New York City, says, "My estimate of women's work is easily judged from the fact that nine-tenths of our district visitors are women." Infinitely more might well be said of New York, of the strength and health, the genuineness and the beauty, of her charities; but enough has been said to indicate their worth, and to merit the attention, the sympathy, and admiration of thinking people.

New Jersey reports women officials in the State Lunatic Asylum and in the State's Prison; and they have proved excellent counsellors and helpers in the care of industrial schools and institutions for feeble-minded women and girls.

In the hospitals of Pennsylvania a large proportion of the physicians are women. In the Women's Medical College the dean and three professors are women, and fifty per cent. of the instructors also. A large number of the charitable homes are entirely officered by women.

Delaware declares that the State has largely relinquished actual work in philanthropy, and turned much of its relief and charity work over to women.

In the District of Columbia women are strongly represented in charitable work.

Maryland shows in her report an unusually large number of local charities, especially broad and active in the cities, in the management of which women have a recognized and special share.

From Virginia comes the first intelligence which dampens our ardor and gives a minor key to our report. Inquiry returns us the information that the chivalrous spirit of man has in the past so impressed itself upon the sentiment of the State that he would be considered as dealing dishonorably with woman to permit, much less to ask her, to share with him public burdens. They have misunderstood and possibly undervalued woman's ability, and clung to the old theory of the oak and the vine. The only hopeful element in the present situation is that poverty and new conditions are forcing women into independent thought and action.

West Virginia admits the same state of affairs.

North Carolina.— No *official* work done by women, but they are active in local charities and church philanthropies.

South Carolina reports that women successfully manage private charities and fill important places in the management of homes, hospitals, and orphan asylums, but nothing that may be strictly called official work is yet given them to undertake. Women, however, in 1874 opened a House of Rest (or home for incurables) for poor creatures who otherwise must stay in almshouses; and this institution has a woman board of managers.

In Georgia there are no women on boards of trustees, and none on the State institutions. Their relations are entirely incidental, and in no case official or entitled by law to any recognition. I quote brief extracts from a Georgia woman's recent letter: "I am Southern born and Southern raised," she writes, "with all both stand for; and I verily believe our sectional disagreements were owing in a large measure to our ignorance, not of books, but of people. If our ancestors had required a convocation of the sections once in every ten years, there would have been no Civil War, in my opinion. . . . As you are aware, the South has been very slow to appreciate the public efforts of women. Whatever of prejudice Northern women may have had to overcome, it has been increased a hundred-fold below Mason and Dixon's line; and the very fact that certain brave women were permitted to work on advanced ideas in the North made our Southern cities more intolerant and unjust."

Florida reports, and with many kind acknowledgments of women's work, that women there are engaged in hospital work, and mingle helpfully, but not officially, in all the charities.

Alabama returns the information that there are many progressive women within her borders who are active in the schools for convicts and who manage efficiently many local charities; and, while they have no official connection with charities, some are employed in subordinate positions of trust.

From Mississippi the report is exceedingly meagre.

Louisiana reports in similar way that very little, if any, co-operative work exists.

Texas reports very incomplete and fragmentary work done, with little co-operation of women except from the Women's Christian Temperance Union.

The women of Tennessee are earnestly co-operating in every way

in which they are permitted. They are now making an effort to establish a reformatory prison for women. Convict women are at present sent to the men's workhouse to work on the roads, and a woman is often seen holding an infant on one arm and protecting the child's face with one hand while she breaks rock with the other.

Missouri claims no special co-operation of women in its charities, but is realizing the good that may be accomplished by establishing such an agency.

Kentucky recognizes the good that women may and do accomplish by co-operating with men in charities. It testifies to the tact and fidelity of women there employed in reformatory and charitable institutions, and declares that God alone knows their devotion and patient work.

Arkansas reports women working in a quiet way in private charities and doing good work.

Women are recognized as valued helpers in the State of Ohio. They are employed as police matrons, and are generally identified with the charitable work of the State, but not officially. Visitors are appointed by the courts for the institutions, and are largely women.

Women are members of the State Board of Charities of Indiana. All the officers of the women's prison and girls' reform school are women, and the State regards itself as rather in advance in these lines of work. A police matron has been appointed in Indianapolis.

Illinois represents women as able to manage discreetly all sorts of charitable work, even to institutions. The Fortnightly, a large club of the literary women of Chicago, discuss all sorts of philanthropic subjects, and women's co-operative work increases year by year.

Michigan women are not on State boards, but are working in very responsible positions. Detroit has a woman on school board and police matrons. No other State excepting Pennsylvania reports so many societies and institutions which women wholly or in part control.

Iowa reports special co-operative work of women, both State, county, and institution, as managers, visitors, supervisors, librarians, etc.

Wisconsin invites women to its Board of Charities, and we are informed that women manage many charities.

Nebraska employs women as superintendents of two State institutions.

Four women are on the Colorado State Board of Control, which has supervision over State Reformatory and is also advisory over Home of Good Shepherd. Institutions reported as not yet under wisest management, but it is hoped soon to establish a State Board of Charities. Denver has police matrons, and numbers of women give time to philanthropic work.

Indian Territory reports that woman has no part in public charities in this Territory. No boards; in fact, but little public interest in the dependent classes.

In Kansas women are county superintendents of public instruction, and prove efficient in the work.

Wyoming has a State Board of Charities, but no official work of women. There are various aid societies and volunteer organizations to look after those in distress, officered by women. Women vote in this State.

No women officially engaged in reformatory or charitable work in Arizona Territory, except that in several counties there are matrons in the county hospitals.

North Dakota.— Women not officially upon State boards. Women are in subordinate positions in State institutions and county asylums.

South Dakota writes that the subject of this paper is of special interest to South Dakota, as women are just beginning to have a share in reformatory work. An investigating committee of women has just been appointed by the governor, to wit: —

> That the governor is hereby authorized and empowered to appoint *three women*, who shall constitute a Committee of Investigation for the Insane Hospital at Yankton, the Deaf-mute School and Penitentiary at Sioux Falls, and the Dakota Reform School at Plankinton.

In Utah Christian women are now doing all that is done in charitable and reformatory work. There are numerous relief societies among the Mormon women, but no union between Mormon and Christian. All the work for children seems to be done by a company of women.

In Oregon women are employed in charities, but rarely as advisers. Their work is mainly confined to subordinate positions, as to women's wards in insane asylums.

Foremost in the line of charities aided by women in California is the kindergarten, inaugurated and conducted now these many years by that noble woman, Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper. It has already given tone and principle to the lives of thousands of needy children, and

proved itself there as elsewhere an untold blessing. Large numbers of women are connected with the enterprise as trustees, managers, and teachers.

Summarizing briefly, we find thirteen States which have State Boards of Charity. Six have women as members of the board,—Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, Wisconsin, and Indiana.

Of large cities, New York, Philadelphia, and Boston are the only ones having school boards on which women are allowed to serve. In Massachusetts the law requires the appointment of women as physicians in all the State insane hospitals. In a few instances, women have been placed on boards of overseers of the poor; and within a few weeks a woman has been appointed for the first time to this office in the city of Boston.

In some of the far Western States, where equal political rights are extended to women, positions on school boards are open to them. In teaching there are many places where women stand on an equal footing with men. There are over one hundred and forty thousand women teachers in twenty-eight States of the Union.

The great centres of kindergarten work are San Francisco, Philadelphia, Boston, St. Louis, and Milwaukee; and women here had much to do with it. In San Francisco, Philadelphia, Boston, St. Louis, and Hartford the establishment of kindergartens is due *directly* to women, also in many smaller cities and towns.

The need of police matrons is being discovered by all large cities, and gradually they are being permitted to take their places.

The number of women is increasing in the National Conference of Charities.

It has been a pleasant task thus to trace woman's co-operation in charitable work, from the States in which she is so generally recognized and established as a helpmeet on to those where her opportunities, though few, are broadening and her influence deepening, down to the States and Territories where the thought that woman may be a helpful factor in the work of humanity is only just now dawning. But we rejoice in the knowledge that the foundations of woman's work were laid long ago in heroism, Christian fortitude, and loving self-sacrifice, and that the work of co-operation so fully started can never be stopped. The hearts of future generations shall glow with gratitude that their days are appointed at a time when sex does not prevent the fullest opportunities to those who may be best prepared to do the work.

In spite of delays, prejudices, and opposition, the feeling and understanding of a free people are sure, sooner or later, to get into their laws; and this sovereign permission for women to work will surely, sooner or later, get into the laws of all the States of our Union. With one voice the statutes will declare the will of the people to their women as well as men officials. The meaning will be, "Henceforth you shall be permitted to do the best work of which you are capable, for the State has use for it; and wherever the questions of philanthropy and reform are discussed, and whatever the methods of work proposed, to both discussion and work you shall be welcome. For we, the people of this commonwealth, have decided 'to give the tools to those who can use them, and let God settle the rest.'"

To the men of the Conference the members of this committee would say that, cheered by your sympathy and recognition, our gratitude blossoms out to-night in quiet promises of strong co-operation in the future and in the manifold benedictions of thankful hearts. When we remember the helpful kindness and unvarying courtesies of all these years, our resolves deepen and broaden and grow rich and strong with the determination to prove ourselves worthy of all true co-operation. It is said that a country is never great and strong till men have died for it. May it as truly be said that our country has grown great and pure because men and women alike live for it! I contemplate this co-operation with joy; for, with another, "I know that no splendid eventuality in the human realm comes by luck, but rather by the concurrence and co-efficiency and dutiful, strong endeavor of all living forces, just as, when the sea is about to make a surge, it calls on every drop in all its waves to *push*." So our commonwealths that make this mighty nation have their defects to be attended to; and we bless God that we women may help to make true and symmetrical the innumerable imperfect individualities that most disfigure us as a people.

To the women of this Conference we also address ourselves. We are all deeply grateful for the increasing opportunities of co-operation with men in charitable work, and we want to render our best help in all the fields of service that have opened or may yet open to us. The phases of work which we are already permitted to treat are large and many-sided. The human interests we already manipulate are the supreme interests of life, and have in them, we find, great pathos and fascination, as we sympathetically analyze them all. True men give us great courage by acknowledging our fitness and ability to work, and by commending our *good* work. But we need to remember (some

of us at least) some things. My observation has been that, where there is an experimental appointment of a feeble number of women upon boards formerly entirely composed of men, these same men upon those boards will receive almost anything in the way of suggestion or proposition from an honest and sensible woman, provided her work proves her wisdom and her words are numbered and to the point. We have a right to be independent, courageous, original, free to express opinions, when necessary; but we shall do better work and earn more privileges if we carry the great load of loving anxiety for our fellows in our hearts much more than on our lips. We must also have *method*, which, from lack of inheritance, we may have to create, working hard to stand to it, working hard to get used to it, determining to so fashion ourselves that it shall become second nature; for there are many kinds of work that cannot be performed at all unless the principle of continued good methods enter into them.

We must find, and let others find, that we can become perfectly adapted to this co-operative principle, so that those who are glad to receive us as workers may come to contentedly rest on our orderly faithfulness and system, and can honor us by prearranging their daily and yearly affairs on the solid ground of our foreknown fidelities. And then as God's great fidelities impress and enfold us, as we love him and trust him for his unending watch-care, and overshadowing love, and as we naturally receive from his dear hand the daily benedictions of his mercy, so may we impress those whom we are to help, and not only enable them to trust us, but to desire to possess the spirit that permeates our work for them. So shall we be fully equipped to do his work for others.

We mothers know how to do some things more naturally than men. We are more natural lovers of little children. We are related to them in an infinitely tender and mysterious nearness, which, even after its literality ends, sheds an undying warmth and intensity of love through all our being, and binds us to our children in eternal bonds.

What cannot those engaged in that supreme work of love, the work for children, be enabled to do? There is scarcely a limit to the opportunities: there is no limit to the results. Each one of us has her niche or field, and each must patiently seek it. We know not the possibilities in us until the opportunities are given to us. While as a class of workers we have much to learn, yet, possessed with a desire to know and do the right, we shall do it, even though

we make mistakes. Clear vision, rationality of method, and good work shall prevail. So shall we enable many who pour their distresses into our hearts to overcome their hindering sins and lead better lives.

We must not wait for great opportunities, but move on all the small chances that we find, or wider fields may never be disclosed to us.

Let us take for our motto, "Do ye nexte thynge," and do it promptly and faithfully.

As children of God's love and teaching, we must literally give ourselves to the least of his creatures as freely as we receive from him.

Reasons for Appointing Women on Boards of Managers and Trustees of State Institutions.

1. The plan of administering incorporated charities by the co-operation of men and women is already largely practised, with highly satisfactory results. Numerous public institutions justly regarded as models, including orphan asylums, general hospitals, and hospitals for the insane, have their internal and financial affairs managed wholly by women.

2. The failure of the State to avail itself, in the management of its institutions, of woman's superior knowledge of domestic economy, entails a pecuniary loss, and an administration not as perfect as it otherwise would be.

3. It has been demonstrated by numerous unhappy instances that female delicacy, on the part of teachers, nurses, attendants, and servants in public charitable institutions, prevents them from communicating to men, acting either as superintendents, trustees, or managers, information necessary to the protection of the inmates and the welfare of the State.

4. To deprive women suffering from either mental or bodily disease, in public institutions, of the benefits accruing from having their sex represented in the board of management, is an arrogant assumption of power, often eventuating in unintentional cruelty.

5. To deprive children of counsel based on a mother's experience, and of that faithful interest which comes from the motherly instinct, by placing them in institutions under the sole management of men, is not only unnatural, but is a wrong for which, sooner or later, society must directly or indirectly suffer.

W. P. L.

XV.

In Memoriam.

TRIBUTES TO DR. ALBERT G. BYERS.

ADDRESS OF REV. F. H. WINES.

Dr. Albert G. Byers, the President of the last National Conference of Charities, at Baltimore, in 1890, is the first of the council of ex-Presidents who has left this world, as we trust, for a better, in which there is neither poverty, crime, nor any of the afflictions and misfortunes which render the existence of this Conference and of the institutions represented in it a necessity. He was born in Uniontown, Fayette County, Penn., in the year 1826. Like the great majority of Western Pennsylvanians, he was of Scotch-Irish stock,— a race which has contributed more to the development of this country and which has made a deeper impression upon its institutions than is commonly supposed, since most of the history current among us has been written by the descendants of the New England Pilgrims and Puritans. He was more proud of being an Irishman than of being a Scotchman; and his humor, which constituted one of his most salient traits of character, was proof that he had more Irish than Scotch blood in his veins. His parents were Presbyterians; and he received the benefit, in early life, of the rigid family discipline and high moral training for which that denomination of Christians is noted.

At a very early age the question of his own relations to the world at large and of his personal responsibility for its betterment engaged his earnest consideration, and he felt within himself an impulse to enter the pulpit. But he doubted his qualification for so high a service; and when, after his father's death, he removed with his mother to Portsmouth, Ohio, he had decided this question, as he supposed, by entering upon the practice of medicine as a regular physician. But his conscience troubled him; and, to quiet it forever, in 1849 he joined the Argonauts, and accompanied a party of gold-hunters to California. Those of us whose good fortune it was to enjoy the com-

pany of Dr. Byers when this Conference went to San Francisco, in 1889, must well remember the graphic account which he gave of his arrival at the Sacramento River, where, exhausted by the fatigues of travel and consumed by thirst, he threw himself down upon the bank of the stream, plunged his face into the water, and drank without lifting his head or making use of his hands. We remember, too, the account which he gave of his part in the organization of a county, and his dry remark that, if he had known as much then of the devious ways of politics as he learned in after life, he might have laid the foundation of a fortune and of a successful political career.

He remained in California, however, only for a year, having received the sad intelligence of his mother's death, which called him home, where he entered again upon the practice of medicine at Ironton. The still, small voice which called him to the ministry still sounded within his soul; and, after a struggle which lasted for two years, he finally decided, at his mother's grave, that he could resist no longer, but must abandon the practice of medicine to become a circuit rider in the Methodist Episcopal Church. He joined the Ohio Conference, and for about nine years performed the duties of an itinerant minister with great acceptance and success. Among other stations to which he was assigned during this period may be named Gallipolis, Pomeroy, Marietta, and Circleville.

When the Civil War broke out in 1861, he went to the field as chaplain of the 33d Ohio infantry. An officer who served upon the regimental staff with him, and who is now president of the regimental association of survivors, says of him: "I speak knowingly, when I say that no officer of my acquaintance was possessed of more patriotic principles, and no one made himself more useful to the commands with which he was connected, than he. Ever ready and ever willing to answer the call of duty, it seemed almost a pleasure to minister to the sick or wounded soldier; and many of our comrades to this day relate instances of his kind attention, when they so sorely needed it. His name will ever be held in affectionate remembrance by those to whom he was bound so closely by the ties of comradeship." Dr. Byers was unable to serve out the full term of his enlistment, and resigned after eighteen months, on account of the inroads made upon his health by the exposure and hardships to which he was subjected, for which his slender frame was poorly adapted. He returned to Circleville and rested for a year, when in 1864 he was called to the Third Street Methodist church at Columbus, the State capital. While act-

ing as pastor of this church, he was elected chaplain of the Ohio Penitentiary, and his acceptance of that position marks an epoch in his life. All that went before may be regarded as a work of preparation for the special ministry which was his real vocation, and upon which he entered then and there.

There are perhaps few clergymen who would regard it as a privilege to leave the regular work of the ministry, to undertake the religious care of convicts. The field would appear to them one of extraordinary difficulty, both on account of the character of the men and women who constitute our prison population and on account of the possible or probable want of sympathy with the work on the part of the prison officials. At the meeting of the National Prison Association in Toronto, in 1887, Dr. Byers gave a very humorous account of his experience as a chaplain. He said that he went into the prison without any personal conviction that it was the place for him; but he found, on entering, that this was the common feeling. There was not a prisoner there who had any personal conviction that he ought to be there. So he found himself at once on a common plane with these men. For almost two years he labored against a twofold difficulty: one was the want of sympathy on the outside; and the second was the indifference of the prisoner to the chaplain,— the prisoner caught the public sentiment, and had it worse than people on the outside.

When Dr. Byers accepted the offer of this thankless position, at a salary of $800, he gave up a better salary and a much more pleasant position. At last he went to the governor of the State, and said to him that he should like some sympathy in his work; and he asked him to appoint some Christian man on the board of directors. The governor promised to confer with him upon the occasion of the next vacancy. When the time came to make his selection, he said: "Three names have been suggested to me; and, unless there is some objection to them, I must select one of these. Do you know Mr. So-and-so?" "Very well, sir." "Is he religious?" Dr. Byers replied: "Mr. S. is a very nice gentleman, a man of high moral character, and, practically, his religion would compare very well with that of many persons in church relations; but he is not a Christian." "Do you know Mr. H.?" "Yes, sir, very well." "Is he religious?" "No, sir; but his wife is." "Well, then, here is the third name. I presume that, to gratify you, I shall have to take him." Dr. S., whom he named, was an excellent gentleman, but one of the shrewdest, most active

politicians in the State. Dr. Byers looked as straight as he could down his nose. He saw where he was; and he said to the governor, candidly, "Come to think of it, Governor, I do not want a Christian so much as I thought I did."

It was Dr. Byers's experience in prison that more positive good came from the little school that he taught in the afternoon than from all the chapel work that he ever did. But he went to the prisoners in their cells, sat down with them there, and did the best he could to make them feel that he was their friend. Having accomplished that, he had very little trouble afterward with them. The following anecdote, which Dr. Byers related at Toronto, will give the best possible idea of the spirit and manner in which he did his work; and it is given in his own words: —

I now recall the worst man that I ever knew in the prison. I studied him. He was exceedingly vicious, wicked, murderous. I found that I could not approach him without being repulsed, and finally concluded I would let him go. I speak of it here, because I wish to say that there are two things that the chaplain must never forget. One is that all who are sentenced are not criminals. A large majority of the men sent to prison are not criminals, in any true interpretation of the word. They should not be regarded and treated as criminals. My other thought is that, whoever else may think it, the chaplain must never conclude that any man is beyond hope. Let the warden, let the courts, let the community, set the prisoner down as hopeless, if they will. But he who believes in the power and adaptation of the cross of Christ must never abandon hope. This man of whom I speak repulsed me, until I said, "I cannot approach him without danger." I do not mean personal danger, but with apprehension that I might be compelled to have him punished. So I let him go. For two months I had not spoken to him, when, passing along the corridor one Sunday afternoon, I saw him sitting with his face buried in his hands. I stopped as I passed. Something within me said, "Why not speak to him?" Something answered, "If you do, he will insult you." Then I said to myself, "Your Master was insulted." "Ay, but he may spit in your face." "Your Master was spit upon, and you are not above your Lord." I turned and went back to the cell, calling him by name. He sprang up instantly, his eyes flashing with fury, and cried: "Why do you not go on? Why did you stop? You read my opinion of you this morning from the book of Job,— 'Ye are all physicians of no value.'" I said: "I know it. I know I am of no value. But he of whom I spoke is of infinite value to you. You must let me talk to you of Jesus Christ. Let me speak a word. If I had known you at sixteen years of age, when you were a boy on your father's farm, and committed simple trespass, and was routed out of the community for it, and after a year's labor went back to your

father, and paid your wages in his hand,— oh, I think, if I had been with you then, I might have helped you. I am so sorry I could not be your friend then." "Who told you that?" I said, "I have learned it, for I wanted to know all your history I could find." He turned quickly, and, falling on his knees, lifted up his hands, and, with tears streaming down his cheeks, exclaimed, "If you will be my friend, I will promise you I will never break another prison rule." And from that hour he never did. I have witnessed in all my life no struggle equal to that which took place in that man in his efforts to overcome himself and be a man. He gained the victory, and subsequently succeeded by his own good behavior in getting a pardon, and went out of prison to become an industrious, good citizen. There is no case beyond hope.

At the expiration of six years of faithful service, he resigned the prison chaplaincy, having served under four different wardens during that time, to become secretary of the Ohio Board of State Charities. This board was created during the administration of Governor J. D. Cox, in the year 1867; and Dr. Byers entered upon the discharge of his duties as secretary August 7 in that year. The motive which actuated him was the belief that he could do more to stay the rising tide of crime by preventing the manufacture and growth of criminals than by attempting to reform them after they had been arrested and convicted. After preparing and submitting to the governor five annual reports, this Board was abolished, as is very well understood, because Dr. Byers had told the truth about the mismanagement of the public institutions of one of the counties of the State, a representative from which was able to retaliate in this way. Dr. Byers quietly remarked that the legislature might abolish the Board, but it could not abolish him. And he continued his work, as before, on his own responsibility, earning his daily bread in his own way and devoting all his spare time to the visitation of charitable and correctional institutions throughout the State. He even printed a report at his own expense, which was said to have been the best that he ever wrote. In 1876 the Board was re-established under the administration of Governor Rutherford B. Hayes, afterward President of the United States; and Dr. Byers was again elected secretary, and continued to act in that relation until his death. Dr. A. B. Richardson, of Cincinnati, said of him: "His work is done, and its fruits will appear more and more with the lapse of time. In the Children's Homes scattered all over the State, and in the improved condition of our penal, benevolent, and charitable institutions, he has left an enduring monument.

His work is not now appreciated to the extent to which it will be as time goes on; for to him, as to no one else in our State, is the great advance in this direction due."

There are those, no doubt, to whom it must appear that no work can equal in importance and in value the spiritual care of souls, and that a successful pastor who turns aside from the ministrations of the pulpit to enter the broad field of humanitarian effort, if not measurably unfaithful to his ordination vows, at least betrays some degree of mental uncertainty as to the relative value of the soul and the body, or of time and eternity. But it must never be forgotten that the work of the ministry is twofold in its nature; that the commission of the Head of the Church to his disciples was to go heal the sick, cast out devils, and, as they went, they were to preach. Our Lord himself always prepared the way for the acceptance of his words by preliminary works of mercy, and thus conciliated in advance the good will of those to whom he spoke. The Church as an ecclesiastical organization is too apt to lose sight of this relation between doctrinal teaching and charitable endeavor. Dr. Byers had a different and a truer conception of the work of the ministry. The Church and the world are to be congratulated that there are men always and everywhere, in the Christian ministry, who, by their example, if not by their precept, illustrate this conception. Besides, even admitting that the spiritual care of souls is the higher function, there must be some who are called to serve tables. The Scriptural saying applies here, "To every man his work," and no man need ever question with regard to another, "What shall this man do?" In the words of old George Herbert,

> "Who sweeps a room as for thy laws
> Makes that and th' action fine."

There can be no doubt that the change in his relations stimulated and expanded all of Dr. Byers's mental and spiritual powers; that it greatly broadened his sympathies; that it brought him into contact with men whom he would never have reached as pastor of a congregation; and that his Christian influence permeated a much wider circle of acquaintances and friends and made a deeper impress upon the history of the times in which he lived. He is to be congratulated, and so are we, that he had the opportunity to take part in the organization and development of this national Conference of Charities,—this church of the divine fragments, as it has been appropriately called, especially devoted to the salvation of men from all the ills of

life, physical and spiritual, temporal and eternal, and without reference to their worthiness or unworthiness, in the spirit of that divine Elder Brother who came to seek and to save the lost. It is the same spirit which actuates the National Prison Association, of which he was also a member, having been one of those who attended the first American Prison Congress, held in Cincinnati in 1870,— a meeting from which a stream of beneficent influence has flowed, and will continue to flow forever, as from a perennial fountain.

In all these varied relations he never forgot his original vocation nor the dignity which attaches to the clerical office, but in all companies and upon all occasions his conduct and conversation were such as adorned the character of a Christian gentleman.

There are some who may think that the vivacity of his intellect, his exuberant love of fun, and his remarkable power of turning everything into a jest are inconsistent with the portrait of him that has just been drawn. Not so. There is nothing so difficult as humor to be understood by those who have not in themselves a native sense of humor. Humor is, in truth, a natural quality, very nearly allied to conscientiousness. Humor and conscience have this in common: either of the two enables its fortunate possessor to project himself, so to speak, outside of the sphere of his personality, and take an impartial view of himself and of his relations, which enables him to judge himself as he would judge another being in whom he had no personal interest whatever. It would probably be difficult to produce from the annals of history a single instance of a genuine humorist who was a bad man. Besides, humor is so closely allied to pathos, both the one and the other having their root in sympathy, that no man feels the tragic aspects of life so deeply as the man who is keenly alive to life's ludicrous side. When Mr. Lincoln was reproached for jesting perpetually, when at the head of the government, in the darkest period of the nation's history, though the country was plunged in the throes of Civil War and hearts were breaking on every side, his dignified answer to the charge brought against him was that, if he had not had this vent for his grief, his own heart would have broken beneath the weight of care and responsibility which rested upon him. Dr. Byers was a man of the same mental constitution as the martyr President; and every amusing anecdote, every original joke in which he indulged himself, was the outward sign of his profound sense of the intolerable burden of human wretchedness, and his anxiety to lighten the gloom with which the thought of it overwhelms the soul.* This

* There's not a string attuned to mirth
But has its chord in melancholy.— *Hood.*

very quality endeared him to his friends. In his home, in his State, and in this Conference he was loved as few men are ever loved, admired as few men are ever admired, and trusted as few men are ever trusted. There was in the play of his fancy and in the manifestation of his tenderness something indescribably delicate. It would seem at times as if he had gone to the very verge of discretion and propriety, so that he was in danger of blundering and saying or doing something that he and his friends would regret; but the fear had scarcely time to make itself felt in one's consciousness before he rose like a bird of lightest wing, and soared into a higher region of thought and feeling, where none but those possessed of the same ethereal lightness could follow him. He had the temperament of an artist. If he had not devoted himself to the ministry, being impelled to that step by the serious side of his nature, he would have made for himself a world-wide reputation as a high-class comedian upon the stage, and would probably have taken rank with Jo Jefferson. His power of mimicry was extraordinary. He was a born actor, and his physical expression added immensely to the point of his jests. With prominent cheek-bones, little flesh upon any portion of his body, and a skin phenomenally white, his countenance resembled a death's head, lighted up by the soul of a poet and a soldier; most benevolent and yet most solemn, so that no one would have dreamed, to see him, of the possibility of such a face being a wide open door for the escape of humorous fancies. During all his last sickness, which lasted for many months, this same cheerfulness of spirit was his steadfast companion. When his clerical brethren, in the city of Columbus, came in a body to pay him a visit of respect, not long before his taking off, the conversation turned upon the character of the obsequies at his funeral. He kept them all laughing and crying, by turns; and, when they left the house, his pastor, taking him by the hand, said, "Well, Dr. Byers, when we meet in heaven, I have no doubt that your first word will be a joke." With what heroism he presided over the Conference at Baltimore, where a man of weaker resolution would have found it impossible to leave his bed! None of us will ever forget that heart-rending scene, when the last evening, as he was bidding us farewell, a sudden failure of the heart caused him to reel, and he was carried into the flies at the back of the stage, where his friend, Dr. Gundry (who has also gone to his reward), ministered to him, while we all sat waiting for the announcement of his death. How bravely he came back, and with what tenderness he delivered the gavel into the hand of his suc-

cessor in office! The memory of his final benediction will linger with us always, like the fragrance of attar of roses in a vase. Some of us saw him again at Cincinnati, at the meeting of the National Prison Association, last autumn, where he sat in an easy-chair at the entrance to the great dining-room, propped up by pillows, waited upon by the loving hands of gentle women, and received the salutations of his many friends, though unable to go to the hall. He was dying on his feet; and now it seems to us, recalling his own story of the Irish prisoner, who never called him by name, but always spoke of him as his "best friend," — and whose wife gave him such a hearty welcome, when he visited this discharged prisoner in his humble cabin, where, reclaimed, honest, sober, industrious, he was leading the new life into which Dr. Byers's faith and kindness had guided him,— that we can hear that loved voice sounding from the battlements of the heavenly city, and speaking to our inner ear: "Come over the threshold! Come over the threshold!"

Mr. F. B. Sanborn.— Nobody could better have described our friend Dr. Byers than Mr. Wines, in the paper just read. It recalls to us every phase of his character. We talk about apostles, but we do not always understand very distinctly what the apostles were. Dr. Byers was an apostle; and he was a laughing apostle, which is a qualification we do not often make concerning the Scriptural apostle. But Dr. Byers had every quality, every experience, of the apostle. His apostolic character was shown not only in his work, so truly apostolic, but in the way the world treated him. It was a marvel to some of us who knew something about the exigencies of charitable work and the importance of the work which Dr. Byers was doing that he, the most efficient and the best qualified of the secretaries and agents of the Boards of Charities in the United States, was receiving less compensation than anybody else. The people of Ohio, who were infinitely indebted to him for his services as chaplain of soldiers, chaplain of prisons, and secretary of the State Board, recompensed him by turning him out of office. That was the first token of his apostleship. When he was restored to office, instead of compensating him for the labors which he had performed day and night, in season and out of season, they tied him down again to that wretched compensation which was not sufficient to support his family.

He was not only an apostle; he was also a gentleman. The distinction which Coleridge once made between gentlemen and other

people was that gentlemen had "a certain indifference in money matters." Dr. Byers had that trait, indeed. He had likewise that other sentiment which characterizes the class known in history as gentlemen, a feeling of obligation. Dr. Byers said: "Here is my work. I have something to do, something to say. The world may pay me or it may not, but lack of reward does not excuse me. I must go on and do my duty." Whatever he did he did under this impulse of the apostle and the gentleman; and never in the whole record of charitable service in America, not even in that supreme example of the same qualities in my own State, the late Dr. Howe, have I known a person more thoroughly equipped, more conscientious in performing every duty and accepting every compensation,—disrespect and rejection included,—than Dr. Byers.

Gen. R. Brinkerhoff.—I think Ohio ought to say a word in regard to Dr. Byers's life and character and his work in our State. I presume there was no one, outside of his own family, that knew Dr. Byers more intimately than I did. For twelve years I was associated with him on the Board of State Charities, and we worked together and talked together and travelled together in nearly all the States of the Union; and I knew all his work and all his difficulties. I was familiar with every feature of his make-up, his trials and his triumphs. If I had time and opportunity, I could give you very many interesting illustrations; but it is impossible now. I simply want to express my debt to him. Except for Dr. Byers, I presume I never should have been interested in this work to any large extent. Except for him, I would not have recalled my refusal to be a member of the State Board of Charities. Except for him, I would not have remained for any length of time on that Board. And, therefore, I want to say that Dr. Byers has had a great influence upon me. Except for him, I should not have made much progress. He was always at my side, always full of wisdom, always full of encouragement. I know that the State of Ohio never appreciated him as it ought to appreciate him or as it will appreciate him in the years to come. Dr. Byers was as much a missionary in this service as any man who ever went into the heart of the African continent. I want to speak of this because there is a personal lesson in it. I think Dr. Byers illustrated what we need in this work more than any man I ever have known. What we want in our prisons, and in all this kind of work, is the spirit of the missionary. We want a man who goes into the prison not on

account of the position that he holds, the emolument that he receives, but because there is a place to work in which no one else wants to work. So Dr. Byers gave himself to this work. It would be very interesting to relate how he came to dedicate himself to this higher work. I want to say that Ohio, which I think you will all agree stands abreast of any State in the Union in connection with her benevolent and penal institutions, owes more of that advance to him than to any other one man, or any other ten men, or any other hundred men. Some years ago I went before the Finance Committee of the House in Ohio, and I pleaded for an appropriation to pay Dr. Byers such a salary as he was entitled to. I said to them at that time: "The day will come when the State of Ohio will build a monument to Dr. Byers. The time will come when, unless you care for him now, you will be ashamed of yourselves."

But the Board of State Charities appreciated him, even if the State legislators did not. And the great heart of Ohio appreciates him. His largest work was in the educating of public sentiment. As we all know, there was nobody whom we could put on the platform of a great congregation who would so hold a vast audience spell-bound. We have heard him, and we know how great was his power. There lay his special work. We put it on him to gather together the congregations in different cities and present to them the importance of the work of the State Board; and in that he did his largest work, although he did a greater work than any one else in jails, prisons, and poorhouses. Dr. Byers was appreciated by every good man and every good woman in our State, and he will be remembered in the history of that State as our foremost philanthropist.

Hon. W. P. Letchworth.— I can add nothing to the beautiful sketch of the character of Dr. Byers made by our friend Mr. Wines, except to speak briefly of my personal intercourse with him. In 1878 I set out to visit the principal charitable institutions in Ohio. When I reached Columbus, Dr. Byers, learning of my intention, generously offered to accompany me, though at a sacrifice of family interests, and burdened with business cares. During the visitations I then made I first came to know his genuine goodness, his tenderness of heart, and true Christian philanthropy. His loving sympathy extended to all the erring ones coming under his supervision. We spent one Sunday at a reformatory institution. Dr. Byers was called upon to address the inmates. In his remarks his hearers were deeply

interested, their better natures were awakened, and their feelings intensified until the cheeks of every woman and girl in the room were bathed in tears. It was his sympathy with the erring and his elevating influence over them that made him so successful in reform work, and added to his great usefulness in connection with the Ohio State Board of Charities. I say what I do to testify to the truthfulness of the delineations so tenderly given, and to express the esteem, reverence, and love in which I hold the memory of this good man.

Rev. H. H. Hart.— Eight years ago, when I began my work as secretary of the State Board, I went to Dr. Byers for advice, and from that day he treated me as a father. To his inspiration and the opportunities I had for sitting at his feet, I owe a great deal of what I have learned in this work. His affection and kindness never failed. The last time I saw him in Cincinnati he said to me: "This has been a beautiful world. It has been a joy to live in it, and I have delighted in the friends I have had. At first it seemed to me as if I could not bear to go out of the world, as if I had a work to do that is not done; but that feeling is gone, and I look forward to the future with as much joy and peace and delight as I have ever had in my life."

I once heard him preach a sermon to convicts on Paul, the Prisoner, and I have never heard anything like it. He carried every man with him, and made them feel that Paul had been a man like themselves. His power was irresistible, and I no longer wondered at the influence he had over convicts.

Mr. A. E. Elmore.— We all knew Dr. Byers's public life. There is another side to his life. Last October I went to his house and spent a night with him, and he went with me to the meeting of the National Prison Association and stayed there over Sunday. Many a man is a nice, good man in a Conference like this, who is a tyrant at home. Dr. Byers was a charming man in his own family. It was there I loved him best.

TRIBUTES TO DR. RICHARD GUNDRY.

Mr. John Glenn.— In offering a tribute to the memory of a man whose life was a benediction, the words should be spontaneous, the offering of the heart, and not the tribute of the mind,— an offering which can only worthily be made after close acquaintance with the

man. Unfortunately for me, I had known Dr. Gundry only since the last Conference. He so impressed me by his exuberant health and buoyant spirits that it never occurred to me that I should ever be called upon, as I am now, to say these few words as a tribute to his memory. His personal attractions were such that I never thought to ask for his personal history. I know nothing of that: I only knew him as a genial companion and friend. The ability which he showed in the management of Spring Grove Asylum, the institution under his charge, was of the first class, and as an alienist with the most advanced views regarding the effects of industrial training in doing away with the necessity of physical restraint he is too well known to need comment from me. One of the best papers on the treatment of the insane, if not the very best, read at the Conference in Baltimore, was from him. And, as a student of literature, he was as remarkable as he was as a specialist in his own line.

The turf of affectionate recollections heaped up by warm and loving friends will ever remain green over this man's memory; and I can write for him no better epitaph than those celebrated words of our American poet whom he so much admired and loved,—

"Green be the turf above thee,
Friend of my better days!
None knew thee but to love thee,
Nor named thee but to praise."

Mr. Alexander Johnson.— I would like the privilege of adding my tribute to the memory of Dr. Gundry. My acquaintance with him was not extensive, but it was enough to command my respect and affection. I was, perhaps, a little prouder of him because we belonged alike to that dreadful and wicked class of people of whom some members of this Conference are so much afraid,— the immigrants,— coming from the same country, England, although he came many years before I did. Those who attended the Conference at St. Paul will remember the debate on Immigration there, and the wonderful height of emotion to which the Conference was lifted by the eloquence of the chief speakers in that debate. Dr. Gundry and I were moved at that time to testify and make known that we were of that dangerous class; and it was then, and through that debate, that I became intimately acquainted with him. He was one of the many excellent men, now scattered through many of the States of the Union, whom the State of Ohio has first trained to usefulness and then dismissed for political

reasons. Like Jerusalem of old, Ohio stones her prophets with unfailing regularity.

One word about our dear friend, Dr. Byers. To him I looked as to a father. His counsel and help were invaluable to me in my inexperience. We worked together in the arrangements for the Baltimore Conference. He felt his powers waning, and was anxious about its success. He said to me in one of our interviews, "Alec,"—so he always called me,— "I want to make this Conference a success even though it shall be the last act of my official life." We know how prophetic his words were. I parted from him on the platform of the closing meeting, saw him once again, and but for a moment, in Cincinnati, where he had gone for the Prison Congress, but was too weak to attend the meetings; and now he has left us forever. But his bright, cheery spirit will stay with those of us who knew and loved him. His life's work was an abundant success. Its results will be a perennial benefit to the State he labored for, long after his name is forgotten.

Mr. A. O. Wright.— On the adjournment of the St. Paul Conference, at my request, Dr. Gundry went with me to the State Hospital for the Insane. We had been trying there to secure the abolition of mechanical restraint, but had not succeeded. They thought that the State Board was a set of cranks. Dr. Gundry was one of the oldest superintendents in the United States; and he had been successful in carrying out non-restraint, the first who ever did carry it out in this country. So I took him with me to aid me in my work of convincing the authorities of the State Hospital of the possibility of this, and he succeeded. From Dr. Gundry's visit mechanical restraint was abolished, and that in a hospital where I have seen in one night one-tenth of all the patients in crib-beds. Following upon that, the other hospital, seeing that it was practical, went in the same direction. All that we owe to Dr. Gundry.

XVI.

Reports from States.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE.

The Committee on Reports from States adopted again the form of circular to the State Corresponding Secretaries used for the past two years. Information regarding the following facts was asked for in it: —

1. The population of the State.

2. Has the State any Board with general supervision of the State penal, reformatory, and charitable institutions?

3. Are reports received at the State capitol of the expense of maintaining State, county, city, and town charitable and penal institutions, and of the supervision of immigrants?

4. What, if any, division is made in such expense between State, county, and towns, and what, if any, assignment of special classes to be supported by each?

5. What is the number and the cost of maintaining the following classes of persons?

The insane, the public poor, children (supported by public or private charity), prisoners, immigrants.

6. Legislation, its general drift and results.

To insure reports from States which possibly could not give all the information asked, your committee suggested to the Secretaries, "If you find it impossible to give the information just as requested, please advise the committee of such fact, but make a report as nearly in harmony with the information sought as you can."

These circulars have been sent to Corresponding Secretaries of 43 States and Territories. The addresses of the Secretaries of Idaho and Nevada were not furnished to us, and no Secretary was appointed for Mississippi or Wyoming. At the request of the committee a large proportion of the Secretaries signified their acceptance of such a position; but some of these have failed to report, while others, who did not file their acceptance, have reported. The number

of States which have reported is much larger than last year, though there still remains quite a number which have failed to report.

There is great lack of uniformity in the reports, so much so that they are useless for making either reliable aggregate statistical showings or comparisons of any value or particular interest. Perhaps not the least value of these reports is that they bring to our notice and emphasize most strongly the fact that there is little, if any, uniformity among our several States in the care of their defective poor and criminal population, and that there is great indifference in many of the States to statistics regarding the number and cost of maintaining such classes. If this uniformity is desirable, the first work of this Conference should be to set in motion some plan, to be adopted by the different States, whereby uniform statistics, covering the information desired, shall be reported at the respective State capitols.

With the difficulties in the way of obtaining facts, those Corresponding Secretaries who have reported have done remarkably well, and deserve our sincere thanks. Some have not reported; and your committee would suggest that it might be wise to change the plan of appointing these officers, so that they could be selected with greater care, and with assurance that they would act. If the Conference would commit their appointment entirely to the Executive Committee, that committee, after more careful consideration and definite information than can possibly be obtained during the session of the Conference, could make its selection of these Secretaries.

Your committee would also renew its suggestion made to the Seventeenth Annual Conference,— that, since in many States reports of institutions are made biennially to legislatures which have only biennial sessions (such reports being the chief source from which the statistics desired by the Conference can be had), Reports from States to the Conference might be made only biennially, at least the statistical portion of them.*

Your committee has taken the liberty of departing somewhat from the custom of the past,— of presenting the report of each State by itself as received from the State Corresponding Secretary,— and of grouping the information received by items, showing by States, under itemized heads, the information obtained on each special subject. This arrangement would have been more reliable, had all the States reported. We hope, however, that it will prove a convenience which

*From this part of the Report Mr. Sanborn dissents, on the ground that even in many such States reports are now made annually, and that our requirement of a report every year does something to overcome the indifference already complained of.

will make such departure from former custom not altogether invaluable or undesirable.

Non-reporting States.

The following State Corresponding Secretaries, to each of whom three requests for reports were sent, either failed to respond to such requests or sent reports too late for use here: —

District of Columbia,	230,392	West Virginia,	762,794
Louisiana,	1,118,587	Florida,	391,422
Montana,	132,159	Missouri,	2,679,184
New Hampshire,	376,530	South Carolina,	1,151,149
Pennsylvania,	5,258,014	Washington,	349,390
Texas,	2,235,523		
Total population,	14,685,144		

Idaho,	84,385	Address of Secretary not known	
Nevada,	45,761	" " " " "	
Mississippi,	1,289,600	No Secretary appointed	
Wyoming,	60,705	" " "	
Arkansas,	1,128,179	" " "	
New Mexico,	153,593	" " "	
Total population,	2,762,223		

Population.

The population of States which have forwarded reports to your committee, as reported in the Census Bulletin of Dec. 12, 1890, is as follows: —

Alabama,	1,513,017	Vermont,	332,422
California,	1,208,130	Wisconsin,	1,686,880
Connecticut,	746,258	Arizona,	59,620
Georgia,	1,837,353	Colorado,	412,198
Indiana,	2,192,404	Delaware,	168,493
Indian Territory,	250,000	Illinois,	3,826,351
Iowa,	1,911,896	Kansas,	1,427,096
Kentucky,	1,855,638	Maine,	661,086
Maryland,	1,042,390	Michigan,	2,093,889
Massachusetts,	2,238,943	North Carolina,	1,617,947
Minnesota,	1,301,826	Nebraska,	1,058,910
New Jersey,	1,444,933	Ohio,	3,672,316
New York,	5,997,853	Rhode Island,	345,506
North Dakota,	182,719	Tennessee,	1,767,518
Oregon,	313,767	Utah,	207,905
South Dakota,	328,808	Virginia,	1,655,980
Total,	45,363,049		

State Boards.

We are the "Committee on Reports from States," not the "Committee on State Boards of Charities"; and we present under this head

only the States which have reported, and make no attempt to give a perfect list of States which have Boards.

California.— Has no State Board of Charities, but a board of directors for each of the three insane asylums, a board of four prison directors for the whole State, and a State Board of Health.

Colorado.— The legislature of 1891 provided for a State Board of Charities; and the governor has appointed Rev. Myron W. Reed, Messrs. J. S. Appel and Dennis Sheedy, of Denver, Rev. John C. Way of Pueblo, Prof. W. F. Slocum of Colorado Springs, and Bruce F. Johnson of Greeley as its first members. The Board is modelled after that of Indiana and Minnesota, and has only advisory powers.

Connecticut.— Has a State Board of Charities, which has advisory supervision of the State, county, and private penal, charitable, and reformatory institutions.

Delaware.— Has no State Board of any kind.

Georgia.— Has no State Board of Charities, but a State Board of Health, with very limited jurisdiction.

Illinois.— Has a Board of Charities, with authority to inspect and report on State establishments, county jails, and poorhouses.

Indiana.— Has an efficient State Board of Charities.

Indian Territory.— Has no Boards.

Kansas.— Has no State Board of Charities. Its charitable institutions are managed by one Board of Trustees. It has a State Board of Health, which is "maintained with increasing interest in its work."

Kentucky.— Has no State Board of Charities, no Lunacy nor Prison Commission. It has a State Board of Health, "with large powers in time of epidemics."

Maine.— Has no State Board of Charities or Lunacy Commission. It has a State Board of Prison Inspectors and a State Board of Health, but no Board with general powers over the insane or the paupers.

Maryland.— Has no State Board of Charities, but a Lunacy Commission, with supervision over all institutions, public, private, or corporate, in which insane persons are detained; and a State Board of Health, which is authorized, when directed by the governor or the legislature, to inspect public hospitals, asylums, prisons, and other institutions. The State has also a Board of Immigration to execute the United States laws.

Massachusetts.— Has a State Board of Lunacy and Charity, with general supervision of the State charitable institutions, extensive

authority over State paupers, and all the powers of a Lunacy Commission. The State also has a Board of Prison Commissioners, with supervision of State and county prisons, and a State Board of Health.

Michigan.— Has a State Board of Corrections and Charities, which has advisory supervision of the State penal, reformatory, and charitable institutions, and of the county charitable and penal institutions. It has also a State Board of Health.

Minnesota.— Has a State Board of Corrections and Charities, with supervisory power over State, county, and municipal correctional and charitable institutions. There is also a State Lunacy Commission of three physicians.

Nebraska.— Has no State Board of Charities. Its constitution provides that all State institutions, except the educational, shall be under the control of the Board of Public Lands and Buildings. There is a strong sentiment in the State favoring a change in this particular; but the calling of a convention, or changing the constitution which the State has outgrown, has always been voted down in the legislature.

New York.— Has a State Board of Charities, a State Commission in Lunacy, a Superintendent of State Prisons, and a Prison Association (a voluntary body) authorized to visit jails and prisons and required to report to the legislature. There is also a State Charities Aid Association, a volunteer auxiliary to the State Board of Charities.

North Carolina.— Has again an active State Board of Public Charities. The Secretary says, "After a dormant condition of the Board for a number of years, it assembled at the State capitol on the first Tuesday in October, 1889, and again assumed advisory supervision of the State and county penal and charitable institutions."

North Datoka.— Has no State Board.

Ohio.— Has a State Board of Charities, with general supervision over all organized charitable and correctional institutions of the State and the counties.

Oregon.— This State, like Colorado, has just swung into line. The legislature of 1891 established by law a State Board of Charities and Corrections, which has the general supervision of all State and county charitable and correctional institutions. All plans of jails, poorhouses, prisons, and hospitals, must be submitted for its suggestions. This Board, with that of Colorado, can be claimed as the direct result of the California Conference of 1889.

Rhode Island.— Has a Board of Charities and Corrections, with general supervision and management of the charities and prisons of the State. There are no county institutions except the jails, which are under the general care of the State. A board of women visitors is appointed annually by the governor to co-operate with the State Board in institutions where women and girls are held.

South Dakota.— This new State at once provided for a State Board of Charities and Corrections, and there were placed under its management the State penal, reformatory, and charitable institutions, which had been managed by separate boards of trustees. Such boards were superseded by the State Board of Charities and Corrections.

Tennessee.— Has no Board of Charities. "Consequently," the Corresponding Secretary says, "it is difficult to know to whom to apply for information."

Utah.— Has no State Boards of any kind. In the words of the Corresponding Secretary, "no board or commission whatever, with general powers in regard to insane persons, paupers, prisoners, or other dependent persons."

Vermont.— Has no State Board of Charities, but has separate boards for the supervision of the insane, the prisons, and the reformatory.

Virginia.— Has no State Board of Charities, nor Lunacy Commission or Prison Commissioners, but a Board of Health.

Wisconsin.— Has a Board of Charities and Reform, and a Board of Supervision. The special duties of the first are in connection with the county asylums for the insane, which are a Wisconsin specialty. This Board also has supervision of the county penal and charitable institutions. These two Boards will cease to exist July 1, 1891, and a State Board of Control will assume all the functions of the Boards abolished.

Statistical Agencies.

California.— Practically none. The Corresponding Secretary says: "I have been unable to obtain any reply to my question from the Secretary of State. It has been to me a very great task. The labor would have been lightened by a State Board of Charities, but that is still in the future."

Colorado.— Practically none. The new Board of Charities and Corrections hope, before another Conference, to have reports so made as to show better the work accomplished and its cost.

Connecticut.— Makes no report under this head.

Delaware.— The Secretary reports: "The State Auditor cannot be reached. The facts which I have gathered were obtained by a county official, and a man who has had constant dealings with other counties."

Georgia.— No report received at the capitol, except from institutions supported by the State.

Illinois.— The only reports of expenditures received at the State capitol relate to the appropriations made by the legislature.

Indian Territory.— Has no public records, nor bureau of statistics.

Kansas.— The Secretary reports: "No improvement in the methods of securing statistical information relating to the defective, delinquent, and dependent classes, outside of institution records, has been secured since our last report. Some meagre reports came to the Department of Agriculture with the wheat and corn statistics, but these are not deemed of sufficient accuracy to justify the expense of their compilation." The Labor Bureau reports certain facts.

Kentucky.— Has small facilities for gathering statistics, since none appear in the report of her Corresponding Secretary.

Maine.— Has no department at the State capitol to which reports are made of expenses incurred in State and county charitable, penal, and reformatory work.

Maryland.— Institutions receiving State aid are required to make biennial reports to the governor and legislature. It is customary for the cities, towns, and counties to send to the governor reports of moneys expended for purposes of charity and correction.

Massachusetts.— Detail reports are annually submitted to the governor and council, and the State Boards report the numbers and expense of the State and local poor, and the insane, and the numbers and cost of maintaining prisoners; also on immigration.

Michigan.— Biennial reports are made to the governor by all the State charitable, penal, and reformatory institutions. Annual reports are made to the Secretary of State of the number in poorhouses and jails, and their cost of maintenance, quarterly reports from State asylums, and annual reports from private asylums and poorhouses, on the insane, are made to the State Board of Corrections and Charities.

Minnesota.— The State Board of Corrections and Charities receive monthly reports of expenditures for the care of the insane, the paupers, prisoners, and other dependants.

New York.— To the State Board of Charities are sent reports of

expenditures of all State charitable and reformatory institutions, all orphan asylums, homes for the friendless, hospitals, and dispensaries; also reports from counties, showing the number of and the expense of maintaining paupers, both town and county (similar county reports are sent to the Secretary of State). Reports on the insane are made by the State Commission in Lunacy, on State prisoners by the Superintendents of Prisons, and on immigrants by the State Board of Charities.

North Carolina.— From the report of the revived State Board of Public Charities, we judge that statistics are gathered by that Board.

North Dakota.— Reports no State statistical bureau.

Ohio.— The State Board of Charities receive reports of the expense for the care of State and county charitable and penal institutions, and the number of inmates.

Oregon.— State institutions report to the Secretary of State. There are no reports of county, city, or town charities, either as to number or expense.

Rhode Island.— Reports from State institutions are received at the capitol by the State Board of Charities and Corrections. No reports from county, city, or town institutions, the Secretary saying that "the towns of Rhode Island are peculiarly independent of any outside control."

South Dakota.— No reports are yet received at the State capitol of funds expended for charitable and correctional uses.

Tennessee.— Our Secretary, after trying the governor and his representative for information and failing to receive it, reported what he could gather from sundry other sources.

Utah Territory.— Not only has no central bureau of information, but the Mormon officials are disinclined to give any.

Vermont.— Reports are made to the governor from the various State institutions, but no reports at the State capitol show amounts spent by counties, cities, or towns for paupers, insane, or prisoners.

Virginia.— Has no central bureau of information.

Wisconsin.— Very full reports are received at the capitol of persons maintained in State institutions and in county jails and poorhouses, and the Wisconsin county system of caring for the chronic insane insures very accurate statistics regarding such. But there are no complete data received from which to correctly report the number or expense for paupers receiving outdoor relief.

EXPENSES, HOW APPORTIONED.

California.— State institutions are supported by the general tax, county institutions by the counties.

Colorado.— The Asylum for the Insane, Industrial School for Boys, Institution for the Deaf and Blind, Penitentiary, and Soldiers' and Sailors' Home receive State support.

Connecticut.— No report under this head.

Delaware.— The State supports all the insane, each county its own paupers.

Georgia.— Each county supports its own paupers. The counties differ in their control of this matter, some managing by grand juries, some by county courts, and some by commissioners.

Illinois.— Inmates of State institutions are maintained wholly by the State, except a trifling charge made for clothing and other incidental personal expenses. The counties construct and maintain the jails and almshouses, except in a few counties where the towns are charged with the actual cost of maintaining their respective paupers. Outdoor relief is furnished by towns to a slight degree. The counties pay for clothing, etc., for indigent inmates in State institutions; they also pay a fixed charge per month for the maintenance of boys and girls committed to the Industrial Schools by the courts. These Industrial Schools are conducted by private corporations. The city of Chicago maintains a House of Correction.

Indian Territory.— "Is not yet so organized that dollars and cents, and so division of expenses, can fairly represent its charitable efforts."

Kansas.— Does not report under this head.

Kentucky.— The insane are cared for by the State, and the poor by the counties. The one institution in the State for the care of juvenile offenders is controlled by the city of Louisville.

Maine.— The State supports only such insane persons in the State Hospital as have no pauper settlement in any town. Others are supported by the towns where they have such settlement. Some State aid is granted to benevolent institutions, but, as a rule, the towns support all their dependent classes.

Maryland.— The city of Baltimore, and twenty-one of the twenty-three counties of Maryland, maintain almshouses. The State provides for pauper lunatics at the Maryland Hospital for the Insane.

Massachusetts.— Paupers and the dependent insane are supported

by the State when they have no local settlement: otherwise, the city or town of settlement maintains them.

Michigan.— The insane in the State asylums are supported by their respective counties for two years, and then transferred to State support. Such as have no legal settlement are supported from the first by the State. The jails and poorhouses are constructed and maintained by the respective counties. There are a very few exceptions, however, to the county support of inmates in poorhouses, a few counties having the township system. The law provides that either may be adopted, the matter being left with County Boards of Supervisors. Lock-ups are supported by the cities in which they are, and Detroit maintains a House of Correction. Other counties may send their prisoners to this institution if they have a contract with it, and pay for the board of short-time prisoners so sent. Prisons and reformatories for juvenile offenders are maintained entirely by the State, as is also the State Public School, School for the Blind, and School for the Deaf, except in the case of the two last named. The expense of clothing patients is charged back to the counties.

Minnesota.— Inmates of State institutions are supported by the State, except that a small amount for clothing and travelling expenses of children in the schools for the deaf, blind, and feeble-minded is charged back to the counties. Counties construct and maintain their own jails and poorhouses, except in the case of a few which have the "town system" of caring for their paupers. Lock-ups are supported by the city or village where they exist.

New York.— The State maintains in institutions the blind, deaf and dumb, idiots and feeble-minded youth, juvenile offenders, criminals, and "State paupers" (these in selected county poorhouses). The State also maintains a Sailors' and a Soldiers' Home. Counties maintain the dependent insane partly in State institutions and partly in county poorhouses and in poorhouse asylums. (This has been changed as fast as the law enacted in 1890, placing insane under State maintenance, has been applied.) For dependent adult blind, deaf and dumb, idiots and epileptics, there is no public provision but in county poorhouses, except that in New York City twenty thousand dollars is annually distributed, pro rata, among the adult blind, of good character, who have not been inmates of public institutions. The counties maintain their own paupers. The "township system" is adopted in some counties, and prevails more or less in most of them.

North Carolina.— Makes no report under this head.

North Dakota.— The expense of providing for the insane is a State burden.

Ohio.— The State institutions are supported by the State. The counties support their respective infirmaries, children's homes, and jails. There is no further local division.

Oregon.— Makes no report under this head.

Rhode Island.—All criminals are cared for by the State, except petty police cases; the dependants, by towns where they have a legal settlement. Those without such a settlement are cared for by the State. Most of the insane are cared for by the State, but in part at the expense of towns. The same is true of juvenile offenders. Counties have no significance or organizations in these repects.

South Dakota.— The chronic insane are a county charge. Others are maintained by the State.

Tennessee.— Does not report on this item.

Utah.— The Insane Asylum, the Reform School, and School for Deaf are supported by the Territory. Other charitable institutions are sustained by voluntary contributions. The Penitentiary is the property of the national government, and is supported by it. Jails are supported by the counties where they exist; and cities support persons convicted in police courts, both those confined in city and county jails.

Vermont.— Paupers, both transient and resident, are supported by the towns in which they are found (tramps are not included). Numbers of harmless, incurable insane are cared for in and by the towns. Other insane are cared for at the expense of the State, at the Vermont Asylum. This is not a State institution, though under supervision of a State Board; but there is a new State hospital at Waterbury for the insane.

Virginia.— The insane are supported by the State, as are also State criminals. Paupers are supported by the counties and towns, as are also misdemeanants.

Wisconsin.— The insane in State hospitals, who have a residence in any county, are supported by the State; but $1.50 a week and the cost of clothing are charged back to the counties for each of these inmates. Inmates in county asylums are supported by the county, with the aid of $1.50 a week from the State for each inmate maintained. Counties which have no asylums may send chronic cases to counties which have, paying to such counties $1.50 a week for each

person so sent, and the cost of their clothing while there. Paupers at poorhouses are supported by the counties, except in a few cases where the "township system" has been adopted. Jails are constructed and maintained by the counties, police stations and lock-ups by the city or village where they exist.

INSANE.

Alabama.

In Insane Hospital, Sept. 30, 1890, 1,054. Average, 1,043. Cost, $130,527.54
(Including 45 pay patients.)

California.

State patients, " 3,450
Received from patients for board, ... $40,790.00
In private asylums, 80. Cost unknown.
The law requires $15 a month from all able to pay.

Colorado.

Number not reported. Cost, $20,000.00

Delaware.

State patients (total, 257), Average, 146 " 23,929.71
Private patients, " 10 Cost not reported.

Georgia.

Estimated " 1,400 Est'd cost, $180,000

Illinois.

State (total, 4,700), " 3,701 Cost, $540,133.00
Counties (including Cook, 1,084), " 2,140 Cost not reported.
(A total of 5,841, besides those few in private asylums.)

Indian Territory.

Average, 25 Cost, $5,000.00

Kansas.

" 1,227 " 215,718.87

Maine.

Total, 583. " 612 " 161,579.82

Maryland.

Whole number Dec. 1, 1890, 1,781.
In Maryland hospital, " 436 " 90,700.76

Massachusetts.

State, 2,180. " 1,238
Cities and towns, 4,051. " 3,468
Private, 1,108. " 831
Total, 5,537 " 1,073,000.00

In addition to these are an unknown number supported at home by friends, not less however than 700.

Michigan.

State, 3,440 (including 356 private.)
Counties, 232
Total, 3,678 — Average, 3,060 — Cost, $539,056.31

Minnesota.

State, 2,418. — " 1,876 — " 317,542.00
All inmates of insane hospitals are a charge upon the State.

New York.

State and county asylums and county poorhouses, Oct. 1, 1890, ... 15,184 — " 2,105,986.91
Private asylums, ... 818 — Cost unknown.
Total, ... 16,002

Nebraska.

Number in attendance, 693. — Cost, $168,853.00

North Dakota.— Commitments to asylums show a slight increase in proportion to the population in the last two years. Probable reason, more mild and chronic harmless cases are being committed than formerly. All expenses for the insane are met by the State, from general taxation.

Ohio.

State, 6,409. — Average, 5,104 — Cost, $777,086.77

Oregon.

" 574 " 85,577.90

Rhode Island.

State, 515. " 507 Cost not given.

South Dakota.

State, 264. " 248 Cost, $58,032.00

Utah.

(Latest report, 1889) State, 171. " 121 (12 priv.) $25,641.96

Vermont.

State, 485. " 475 (116 priv.) $69,324.00
Towns, " 95 Cost not given.
570

Virginia.

State, 2,193. " 1,793 Cost, $171,934.32

The proportion of free and pay patients is not given. Many are unprovided for because of insufficient accommodations in the asylums.

Wisconsin.

State, ...	1,388		
County, ...	1,717		
Poorhouses, jails, and boarded out,	34		
Total, ...	3,139	Sept. 30, 1890.	Cost not reported.

The county asylum system, as administered, is commanding the public confidence, not only for the care of chronic insane, but for the acute cases as well. There have been some remarkable recoveries among the chronic insane, attributed largely to that personal care and treatment which is possible in small asylums. In Wisconsin every insane person is in an appropriate institution, and no institution is overcrowded.

Your committee were desirous of giving the total average of the insane in the States reporting, with the aggregate and per capita cost, and the proportion of the insane to the total population. Averages have not in all cases been reported. In some reports the number of insane has been omitted, and in others the cost of maintenance. Doubtless the facts given were as full as could be obtained by our State Secretaries, but of such variety, and, as a whole, so incomplete, that no satisfactory summary can be presented.

The Public Poor.

California.— This report includes the San Francisco charities only, and covers the city and county hospital, almshouse, small-pox hospital, and industrial school.

Whole number, 5,236. Daily average, 1,274. Cost, $200,381. The report also includes the amount expended, without giving the number aided in the city receiving hospital. Robinson bequest fund and the mayor's contingent fund (these two latter for outdoor relief), and the San Francisco Benevolent Society, aggregating $19,200. There are nineteen county almshouses and hospitals in the State, which have aggregated 6,281 inmates the past year. Children have been excluded from the San Francisco almshouse for the first time the past year.

Colorado.— The report includes Denver charities only, and covers the Associated Charities of Denver, Ladies' Relief Society, Ladies' Hebrew Benevolent Society, St. Vincent de Paul Society, Denver Orphan Home, St. Vincent's Orphan Asylum, Woman's Hospital, Tabernacle Free Dispensary, Charity Organization Society, St. Jo-

seph's Hospital, Homœopathic Free Dispensary, Day Nursery and Kitchen Garden, and St. Luke's Hospital. Whole number cared for, 9,718. Cost, $31,741.15. Industrial School, 222. Average, 145. Cost, $33,493.75.

Charity work has been vastly increased during the last two years in the State, the result largely of work by the Associated Charities of Denver. Charity organization societies have been established in Greeley, Colorado Springs, Pueblo, Boulder, Cañon City, and Aspen. No statistics, however, of their work has been received; and the Secretary writes, "It has been impossible to secure reports from counties."

Connecticut.— Reports no statistics, but its Secretary says: "The State Board of Charities is working, as best it can, to improve the condition of the almshouses, and visits regularly the State, county, and private asylums, prisons, and homes for children. A steady and marked improvement is seen, in the almshouses particularly. Able-bodied children have almost entirely disappeared from them. The selling of the care and keeping of paupers to the lowest bidder is now by law prohibited. The plan for providing temporary homes for dependent, neglected, and abused children is working admirably."

Delaware.

Indoor poor, whole number, 354.	Cost,	$40,410.87
Outdoor (no record of number).	"	10,368.28

Illinois.

Whole number in county institutions, about 21,000.		
Average number, 4,708.	"	724,888.00
Outdoor relief (no record of numbers).	"	648,506.00
Children in industrial schools.	"	40,000.00

Indian Territory.

In Oklahoma the United States gave	40,000.00

Kansas.— The State Secretary says, "Statistics are worthless, because half the township trustees ignore the questions"; and he therefore makes no report under this head.

Maine.— There are no statistics available. Many towns have no poorhouses, a few have no paupers, some board theirs out in families.

Maryland.

Baltimore City Almshouse, total, 3,295.	Average,	1,068	Cost, $84,694.63
21 county almshouses.	"	850	Cost unknown.

Outdoor relief is given by all the 23 counties in the State. Baltimore gives no outdoor relief. The School for Feeble-minded has 30 inmates. State appropriation, $5,000.

Massachusetts.

Indoor poor, whole number, 12,592.	Average, 6,646	Cost, $836,731 00
Outdoor poor, whole number, 47,876.	" 16,000	" 892,182.00
Total,	22,646	$1,728,913.00

Michigan.

June 30, 1889. In poorhouses, 4,847.	Average, 2,192	Cost, $238,271.12
Outside poorhouses, 39,128.		" 420,494.32
(Permanent, 2,754. Cost, $33,817.89.)		
(Temporary, 36,374. Cost, $386,676.43.)		
June 30, 1890. School for Blind, 95,	" 79	" 22,822.37
" School for Deaf, 299.	" 290	" 63,892.00
" State Public School, 375.	" 198	" 33,277.99
		$778,757.80

Minnesota.

In poorhouses, 721.	" 341	" $64,200.00
Outside poorhouses, estimated 10,000.	" 6,074	" 233,072.00
(Cost to each inhabitant, ¼ cent.)		
State Public School, 247.	" 102	" 21,400.00
Private orphan asylum, 590.	" 450	" 42,000.00
	6,967	$360,672.00

New York.

Indoor, 78,323.	
Outdoor, 97,018.	Cost not given, estimated $3,000,000.00

Nebraska.

Industrial School, ...	275	Cost, $56,819.00
School for Deaf, ...	119	" 32,175.00
School for Blind, ...	72	" 15,000.00
School for Feeble-minded, ...	134	" 35,000.00
Industrial Home, ...	34	" 7,717.50
Home for the Friendless, ...	111	" 14,250.00
Soldiers' and Sailors' Home, . . .	75	" 14,000.00
Total, ...	820	$174,962.50

North Carolina.

		State Appropriation.
Oxford Orphan Asylum (Masonic),	Average, 250	Cost, $10,000.00
Deaf, Dumb, and Blind Institute,	" 150	" 28,500.00

Ohio.

Indoor poor (county infirmaries).	
Outdoor relief, total number, 54,120.	Cost, $420,971.70
Children's county homes, number, 2,997.	" 204,505.11

Oregon.

State Deaf-mute School,	Average, 30	Cost, $8,923.14
Institute for Blind,	" 7	" 2,959.29

The Home, the Boys' and Girls' Society, the Portland Board of Charities, and other charities named in report of 1889 are continuing their helpful work.

Rhode Island.

Outdoor relief in Providence,	Average, $11,805.59
Charity building and wood-yard (assisted 2,905),	" 4,678.55

Impossible to state number supported by towns. Each town adopts its own method for caring for its poor, and the superintendents simply make a report to the town council.

Estimated expense for full support of the poor of towns, $72,266.25.

Tennessee.— The State has an asylum for the deaf and dumb, for the blind, and a Boys' Industrial School; but the State Corresponding Secretary was unable to get any report of number of inmates or amount of expense for maintaining them.

Utah.— Has no system of outdoor relief. The Secretary reports but one poorhouse (Salt Lake County). Average number of inmates, 45. Cost reported, only $700. The Woman's Industrial Home, established by the United States as a home for women who renounce polygamy, and for their children, has an average of 10 inmates; and Congress has appropriated $4,000 for its maintenance the current year.

Virginia.— Reports no statistics of public poor. Impossible to make any estimate.

Wisconsin.— There are no data from which to correctly report the number of the poor or the amount paid out in relief, because of the different methods adopted by the counties in the administration of outside relief. In the State Public School, School for the Deaf, Industrial School, and School for the Blind there are 892 inmates. The total number of persons in poorhouses was 1,890, with 1,004 at the close of the year 1890.

As desirable and satisfactory as it might have been to your committee to present a summary of these reports regarding the "Public Poor," it was beyond its power. The great variety in the make-up of the reports, and the lack in many cases of any data, precluded the possibility of any successful effort in this direction.

Children.

California.—This State appropriates $100 a year for each full orphan child, and $75 for each half-orphan, in the 22 orphan asylums and children's homes of the State, which are private and mostly sectarian charities. The number of children maintained thus in 1890 was 4,060, at a cost of $267,041.13. The Boys' and Girls' Aid Society of San Francisco rescues homeless, neglected, or abused children, and provides for such until suitable homes or employment can be found for them. 179 homes were provided in 1890, 1,354 during the past nine years. The Directory also places children in homes in the country; and 462 boys were received by it, and 85 placed out during the year. The orphan asylums endeavor to secure homes for such of the children as are too old to remain there. The Hebrew Orphan Asylum seeks to give its wards a means of livelihood before they leave the institution, from a private fund for the purpose.

Colorado.— The State maintains the Institution for the Deaf and Blind. Number, 103. Cost, $69,042.21.

Private benevolent institutions have cared for children as follows, in 1890:—

The Ladies' Relief Home, Denver,	Average,	23 per month.
Colorado Humane Society, Denver,	Total,	243
St. Vincent's Orphan Asylum, Denver,	"	1,029
Woman's Hospital, Denver,	"	439
Tabernacle Free Dispensary, Denver,	"	231
Denver's Orphan Home,	Average,	45
Denver Free Kindergarten Association, in its four kindergartens, about		200
The Day Nursery has cared for about		800 without charge.

Connecticut.— The plan of providing temporary homes for dependent, neglected, and abused children is working admirably; but it sadly needs one or more State agents whose entire business should be to place the children from the eight county homes in good families. Over 50 per cent. of those who have gone into these homes from year to year have been placed in families. The Board of Charities are making an effort to establish, under an incorporated society, a home for incurable children, some five thousand dollars having been raised or in sight, and the legislature is to be asked for an appropriation.

The Lakeville School for Imbeciles (founded by the late Dr. Knight, and now carried on by his wife and son) is overcrowded, and a movement is on foot to open another school of like character. $65,000 is pledged for the purpose, conditioned on the State duplicating the amount.

Delaware.— There are in the State two orphan asylums and a Home for the Friendless. Further than this the Secretary could give no information.

Georgia.— Atlanta has a Home for the Friendless which cares for neglected children. Further than this the Secretary was unable to report.

Illinois.

In blind asylums,	165	
In deaf and dumb asylums,	506	
In Soldiers' and Orphans' Home,	185	
In Asylum for Feeble-minded,	361	
Total,	1,217	supported by the State

In addition to these there are 766 in industrial schools, which through private charities receive a per capita payment from counties sending children to them, as dependants, through the county courts.

In other private institutions there are about 2,500, and in the poorhouses (county) 353, a total of 4,836 children being thus cared for by the public, as given above in detail. The cost is not reported. The Protestant institutions place children in homes as rapidly as possible. The Children's Home Society has branches in nearly every county in the State for this purpose, and also correspondents in other States. No children from Aid Societies in other States are allowed to be received for distribution in Illinois.

Indian Territory.— Has two orphan asylums, one for Cherokee and one for Choctaw children. There are in the two some 200 children. Cost, $20,000.

Kansas.

Reports feeble-minded youth,	103	Cost,	$17,988.00
Dependent children,	125	"	19,980.00
School for the blind,	80	"	19,200.00
School for the deaf,	240	"	42,200.00
	548	"	$99,368.00

Maine.— There are few children in the almshouses; for, while the law does not prohibit it, the W. C. T. U. (organized in nearly every

town) has taken the matter in charge, and removes them from the almshouses, placing them in homes by adoption or in some of the homes for children in the State. In these homes are an average of 200 children. The expense is about $18,200. The State sends its feeble-minded children to the Massachusetts School at Waltham. Its deaf children are cared for at the State School at Portland. The Fresh Air Society of Portland sends children into the country for the summer or longer, paying from $1 to $2 a week each for board.

Massachusetts.— The figures given below are approximate only, and are included in the statement of "Public Poor":—

An average of 550 children are supported in families chiefly by the State. Cost,		$60,000.00
An average of 1,350 are in city and county homes and local almshouses,		180,000.00
Total, 1,900		$240,000.00

The feeble-minded children to the number of 300 are maintained at the school in Waltham, at a cost of about $50,000.

Michigan.

At the State Public School, 375.	Average, 198	Cost, $33,278.00
At the State Public School, June 30, 1890,	203	
Out on trial, June 30, 1890,	115	Without cost to the State.
In homes indentured,	1,019	" " " "
Total,	1,337	

Proportion of cost for State county agency system for placing and supervising children,		$4,600.00
Wards of the school, 1,337. Cost,		37,878 00
In poorhouses (given in "Public Poor"), mostly idiots or feeble-minded,	393	
In private homes for the friendless at Detroit, Kalamazoo, Saginaw, and Muskegon,	695	Cost not obtained.

The law provides that no child shall be placed in a family by indenture until such home has the approval of certain officers designated for such purpose. The State wards indentured are to have the constant supervision of county agents, such an officer having been provided in nearly each county of the State.

Minnesota.

In the State Public School,	247	Average,	102	Cost, $21,400.00
In private orphan asylums, estimated,	590	"	450	" 42,000.00
Total,	837		552	$63,400.00

Indentured in homes from State Public School, 148.

New York.— About 23,000 children are supported by the public, mainly in institutions. New York City supports an average of 14,000 boys and girls, at an expense of $1,500,000, in institutions controlled by private citizens. Children, except in a very few instances, are not boarded in families. No children over two years old are in poor-houses, except a few defectives.

Nebraska.— Children are cared for, as shown under "Public Poor."

North Dakota.— A liberal appropriation has been made by the legislature to the Deaf and Dumb Asylum, established a year ago. Provision has been made for the location of a school for the blind.

Ohio.— Thirty-six children's homes, supported at county expense, have maintained during the year 2,997 children, at an expense of $204,505.11. Children are placed out in families by officers of such county homes. A few special county agents have been appointed to do this work.

Oregon.— As shown under the "Public Poor," the children are cared for in the School for the Deaf and the Blind, and by the Boys' and Girls' Aid Society.

Rhode Island.— Has various institutions for dependent children. In Providence are the Children's Friend Society, Colored Shelter, Tobey Street Home, Providence Nursery, and State Home and School; in Bristol and Newport each, a Home for Destitute Children. The New England Home for Destitute Children at Boston, Mass., receives children from Rhode Island.

Tennessee.— The Secretary reports: "In my county the children are very badly cared for. The only provision is two private orphan asylums, neither of which takes children over ten years of age. Young orphan girls beg upon the streets, and numbers are kept in houses of ill-fame."

Utah.— Makes no provision for pauper children, for orphans, imbeciles, or for any who need care, except for deaf-mutes and lunatics. The Orphans' Home of Salt Lake, sustained by private charity, has cared for 50 children during the year, and 20 children have been placed in families from it. The cost of maintaining the home is about $1,500.

Vermont.— There are about 100 children cared for in the Home for Destitute Children at Burlington and the Warner Home at St. Albans. The Roman Catholics have an orphan asylum (St. Joseph's) at Burlington.

Virginia.— Children are in no way provided for, but take their

chance with the adult paupers and criminals. The Secretary says, "This fact represents one of the worst, if not the worst, features of the present situation."

Wisconsin.— The Roman Catholic, Lutheran, and other Protestant churches maintain orphanages and asylums, and probably care for more children than the State. The tendency is to retain children too long in those institutions. The State has a School for Dependent Children and a State Reformatory for Boys. The Industrial School for Girls, at Milwaukee, is a private charity.

Prisoners.

Alabama.— Has two classes of convicts: (1) Felons who are sentenced to the Penitentiary, and designated as "State convicts." Every sentence of these must be for over one year, except persons first convicted for keeping a gambling table, when the sentence is for six months. (2) Those sentenced to hard labor for a county, including misdemeanants sentenced to hard labor. This class may also include felons sentenced to two years or less.

Number of State convicts Sept. 30, 1890,	1,123
Number of county convicts Sept. 30, 1890,	654
	1,777
State convicts released during the year, 285.	
Namely, by death,	50
Escaped,	23
Pardoned,	27
Otherwise discharged, about	185

The convicts are leased to the Tennessee Coal, Iron, and Railroad Company, all except women (who by law cannot be assigned to a contractor), boys (who cannot be worked in mines), and certain men exempt from hard labor. The amount received for convict hire for two years, ending Sept. 30, 1890, was $200,456.58, and the net profit of the Alabama convict system for those years was $163,534,14. The inspectors of convicts, in their last report to the governor, say: "In Alabama we have the lease system under greater restrictions and more careful provision for the welfare of the convicts than it is anywhere. Still, it should be done away with, for many reasons. There is a steady growth of opposition to the system. Among our thoughtful people the many objections to it are being more and more considered."

California.— (State Prisons.)

		Cost, deducting earnings.
At San Quentin, July 1, 1890,	1,392	$210,949.00
At Folsom, July 1, 1890,	623	107,821.00
Total,	2,015	$318,770.00
San Francisco City Prison, number unknown.		Cost, $10,798.00
San Francisco County Jail, 1,905.		" 15,583.00

The Secretary reports that she was unable to find statistics of other county jails.

Colorado.

Penitentiary, Carson City, 509.	Cost, $166,093.44
Industrial School for Boys,	" 69,042.91

Girls are sent to the House of the Good Shepherd at Denver, at a cost of 50 cents per day to each county sending for girls of thirteen years of age, and 25 cents a day for all under that age.

Connecticut.

State Prison.	Average, 323.	Expenses over income, $7,000.00

The management of the two reformatories, one for boys and one for girls, object to receiving children over sixteen years of age. If such is decided to be the best policy for the reformatories to pursue, Connecticut will be asked to open other reformatories for persons from sixteen to twenty years of age. Now the jails are the only places for such.

Delaware.— Has no State Prison. Each county has its jail. Boys can be committed to the Reform School. No statistics obtainable.

Georgia.— Has 1,700 State prisoners, over whom the State keeps control. All are leased, however.

Illinois.— (State Penitentiaries at Joliet and Chester.)

Estimated average number,	3,050	Cost above earnings about	$52,000.00
Jails, estimated average number,	700	" " " "	130,000.00
Reform School for Boys, average,	380	"	52,842.00
Chicago House of Correction gives no report.			

Indian Territory.—Average, 200 prisoners, without work.

Kansas.

In the Penitentiary, average,	890	Cost, $121,565.10
In the Boys' Reform School,	189	" 31,079.16
In the Girls' Industrial School,	34	" 6,300.00

Work on the State Industrial Reformatory has been suspended, from failure to secure an appropriation. The friends of prison reform, however, hope to see the plan carried forward.

Maine.

In the State Prison are 174 (including 5 women). Cost, $16,428.00

There are no reformatory prisons. The present management of the State Prison makes it as reformatory as possible.

Committed to county jails, 3,780 (one-third were for less than one month).
Cost of board per week, $1.88.

Maryland.

In the State Penitentiary, average, 681. Under contract, and self-supporting.		
Baltimore City Jail, total for year, 10,395.	Average, 522	Cost, $49,742.36
Inmates employed on contract have earned		4,728.98
23 county jails,	" 227	
Maryland House of Correction, total, 641.	" 271	
State appropriation, $25,000.00		
Earnings, 5,000.00		

Industries in the Penitentiary are furniture and plumbers' marble, hollow ware, boot and shoe manufacturing.

At the House of Correction, chair-caning, shoemaking, tailoring, carpentering, and farming.

Massachusetts.

State Prison, Charlestown,		Average,	586	Cost (net),	$108,778.04
Reformatory, Concord,		"	681	" "	118,972.26
" Woman's, Sherborn,		"	219	" "	35,577.63
State Farm, Bridgewater,		"	248	" "	25,000.00
Total maintained,	2,952	"	1,734	" "	$288,327.93
In county prisons and jails,	Total, 21,395	"	2,953	"	335,392 69
Municipal prison,	" 15,070	"	1,093	"	106,875.60
Aggregate total, . . .	39,417	"	5,780	"	$730,596.22

Labor (in prisons) is managed by prison officials and on public account. The net income from prison labor in 1889–90 was $204,125.21, as follows: State Prison, $22,994.06; Reformatory, $46,453,35; Woman's Reformatory, $12,200.74; State Farm, $3,811.54; county prisons, $91,442.60; and House of Industry, Boston, $27,222.92. In six of the twenty-one county institutions there is no income from labor.

Michigan.

State Prison,	Total, 976	Average, 736	Net cost,	$31,055.34
U. P. Prison,	" 139	" 100	" "	25,000.00
State House of Correction,	" 794	" 386	" "	46,462.25
Reform School, boys,	" 718	" 480	" "	59,921.65
Industrial Home, girls,	" 315	" 233	" "	33,261.13
Aggregate,	2,803	1,935		$195,700.37

County jails,	Total, 11,321	Average, 342	Cost, $110,033.95
Cost of arresting and imprisoning in jails,			27,005.52
Cost of conveying convicts to prison,			12,892.20
Miscellaneous items,			1,573.17
Aggregate,		342	$151,504.84

Detroit House of Correction,	Total, 2,284	Average, 415
Above expenses, the net earnings are		$18,966.47
(But this is mostly from board paid.)		

Minnesota.

State Prison, total,	572	Average, 352	Cost, $81,500.00
Reformatory, young men,	131	" 81	" 42,200.00
City Workhouse, total,	3,396	" 228	" 38,600.00
County jails, total,	3,581	" 175	" 61,500.00
Lock-ups,	18,936	" 58	" 10,600.00
Totals,	26,571	894	$234,400.00

Prison census of the State Board Dec. 31, 1890: —

Awaiting trial in jails and lock-ups,	174
Serving sentence in jails and lock-ups,	66
Serving sentence in City Workhouse,	225
Total in jails, etc.,	465
State Prison,	312
Reformatory,	139
Reform School,	287
Total December, 1890,	1,203

Under the law enacted in 1889 half the convicts at the State Prison are contracted at 45 cents per day. The remainder are employed on State account, at work manufacturing tubs, pails, and binding-twine, except a few used for domestic labor of the prison. A few inmates of the St. Paul City Workhouse are employed on State account, knitting socks, doing farm and domestic work, and laboring on a neighboring park. The inmates of the Minneapolis City Workhouse are employed partly in a stone quarry, part on public roads, and part doing farm and domestic work for the institution.

Nebraska.— Penitentiary at Lincoln. Number, 387. Cost, $58,314.

North Carolina.— State Penitentiary, Dec. 1, 1890, 1,302, divided as follows: 173 in prison at Raleigh; the rest on four different railroads, on the Weldon Canal, the Graystone Quarry, and the Roanoke Farm. As to expenses, the warden says, "The present management has been able to realize more than enough from convict labor to pay all expenses of the institution during the past year." Under the head of "juvenile criminals," the warden reports 56 under fifteen years and 362 between fifteen and twenty years of age, and says in this connection, "I again most earnestly recommend that some other method be adopted for dealing with young offenders without placing them in direct contact with the vicious and hardened, whereby a youth is most naturally made a confirmed criminal."

Ohio.

At the Penitentiary, number for year,	2,438	Average,	1,599		
Current expenses in excess of earnings,					$853.57
At Boys' Industrial School,	975	Average,	603	Expenses,	59,646.49
At Girls' Industrial Home,	359	"	288	"	35,825.78
Workhouse and houses of refuge,	4,778			"	106,412.22
County jails,	9,377			"	108,718.85

Oregon.— State Penitentiary, 603, for two years. Net cost per diem, $9\frac{7}{10}$ cents.

There has been appropriated $60,000 to build a reform school, which will probably be opened some time during 1891.

Rhode Island.

State Prison, Jan. 1, 1891,	108	Net expenses,	$14,241.73
Workhouse, Jan. 1, 1891,	266		
Boys' Reform School, Jan. 1, 1891,	185	Expense,	36,793.80
Girls' Reform School, Jan. 1, 1891,	30	"	4,424.46
Jails (total, 2,489), Jan. 1, 1891,	274		
Expenses at Workhouse are included with those of almshouses and asylums for the insane, and amount to			$117,576.09
For the Workhouse alone, perhaps,			35,000.00

South Dakota.

Penitentiary, total, 171 Average, 88 Cost, $34,429.36

State prisoners now (Nov. 30, 1890) absent on parole, 27. They are paroled under such rules and regulations as the State Board adopt. The total number paroled is 38, not one of whom has so far relapsed into crime, and only two have been reimprisoned for violation of their parole, one of them for drinking liquor furnished by a citizen against the provision of law.

Reform School inmates, Nov. 30, 1890 (boys, 49; girls, 13), 62.
Cost, $11,701.16.

Utah.

In the Penitentiary, total, 449 Average, 175 Cost, 55 cts. a day each.

There is no labor in the institution, except the little domestic duties. The governor, in his last report to the Secretary of the Interior, calls attention to this deplorable fact, renews a former recommendation that the prisoners confined in the United States Prison be placed at work, and makes the suggestion that their surplus earnings be given to those dependent on them for support.

The Reform School at Ogden has received 34 boys and 7 girls during its first year, and has paroled 4 boys and 2 girls during the same period.

Vermont.

State prisoners,	Average, 87	Net cost,	$6,729.00
Reform School,	" 72 boys, 13 girls	" "	11,432.00
House of Correction,	" 63	"	7,408.00
Aggregate jail expense, ...			4,737.00
Total, ...			$30,306.00

The contract system of labor has been changed to State account during the past year.

Virginia.

State Penitentiary: in prison, 815; leased, 266; total, 1,081.

The superintendent reports, "Our receipts from the hire of convicts inside the walls has been sufficient to meet all expenses for the maintenance of the convicts, etc., both those in the Penitentiary and those on public works, thus showing that the prison under the contract system is self-supporting." The prison has no guards, matron, or chaplain. No instruction is given at it. There are no reformatories, for either adults or children, supported by the State or under State supervision.

Wisconsin.

State Prison, Sept. 30, 1890, 532 prisoners.

Prisoners are employed under the contract system. It is sought to combine reformatory and penal discipline, and the attempt is fairly successful. Indeterminate sentences and conditional liberation are now optional with the trial judge.

Immigrants.

Only a few States make any report on this class.

Maine.— 1,500 immigrants, about equally divided between England, Ireland, and Scandinavia. There is no State legislation on this subject. In Portland only is there an Immigration Board.

Maryland.— Has a Board of Immigration to execute the United States laws. There arrived at Baltimore, during 1890, 30,476 immigrants: from Germany, 18,601; from Austria-Hungary, 5,105; from Russia and Poland, 4,118. The rest were from Denmark, England, Ireland, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, Scotland, and Italy, ranging in number from 1 from Italy to 438 from Denmark.

Massachusetts.— The Indoor Department of the Board of Lunacy and Charity has supervision of immigration. The number received at Massachusetts ports during the year ending Oct. 1, 1890, was 51,367, of whom 31,586 were from transatlantic ports and 19,780 from the British Provinces. 73 were reported as of the prohibited classes, of whom 51 were returned to the country from which they came. From Ireland came 11,132; England, 7,456; Scotland, 1,725; Russia, 1,872; Sweden, 4,541; Norway, 1,429; the British Provinces, 19,781; and the rest from Wales, Germany, France, Poland, Switzerland, Belgium, Holland, Italy, Spain, Portugal, Denmark, Hungary, Austria, China, Australia, Turkey, and Greece, ranging in number from 1 from China to 382 from Poland.

The expense, on account of these and other immigrants charged to the United States, was $23,133.99; and $15,766.50 was collected as "head money," being 50 cents for each immigrant landed.

New Hampshire.— Has an Immigration Commissioner, but makes no report.

New York.— In April, 1890, the Secretary of the Treasury terminated the old contract with the State Commissioners of Emigration, and assumed control of immigration at the port of New York, through a Superintendent of Immigration. Immigrants landing in New York during 1890 were 358,510, as follows: From Germany, 68,058; Italy, 58,243; Austria, 25,232; Hungary, 23,003; Russia, 31,793; Denmark, 8,220; Scotland, 4,869; Ireland, 33,604; England, 24,833; Poland, 17,326; Bohemia, 7,842; Holland, 3,209; Sweden, 24,301; Norway, 9,569; Switzerland, 6,436. The remainder came from Wales, Belgium, Spain, Portugal, Finland, China, Australia, Armenia, Turkey, and Greece, ranging in number from 5 from China to 2,118 from Bel-

gium, none reaching a thousand but Belgium, 2,118, and Finland, 1,336.

Rhode Island.— Reports no Immigration Bureau. The State has a large foreign population, principally from England, Ireland, France, Sweden, Italy, and the British Provinces.

Utah.— The last legislature created the office of Immigration Commissioner, but made no provision for salary or expenses. Therefore, no one has accepted the position. Nearly all the immigrants are brought by the Mormon Church, chiefly from England, Scotland, Sweden, Norway, and Denmark. Our Secretary has been unable to obtain any information as to the number.

Vermont.— For a brief period the Commission of Agriculture and Manufacturing Interests collected and published statistics of immigration. The commission was abolished by the legislature of 1890. Most of those of foreign birth in Vermont are French Canadian and Irish.

Virginia.— The State Commissioner of Immigration says: "It is impossible for us even to approximate the number of immigrants to Virginia during the year. We have no money to apply to the collection of such information, and so have been unable to get it." Our State Secretary adds: "The above statement furnishes the explanation of the apparent indifference of the people of Virginia as to the treatment of their helpless and criminal fellow-citizens. Nothing can be done so long as the State treasury is empty, and it is futile to criticise the inaction of our impoverished people. . . . Reform work, when once started, will, I believe, go forward with surprising swiftness."

Legislation.

California.— Appropriations have been made, as follows: —

Institutions for blind, deaf, and dumb,	$128,124.00
Home for Adult Blind,	24,998.00
State Prison, San Quentin,	438,143.00
State Prison, Folsom,	139,399.00
Preston School of Industry (construction),	160,000.00
South California Insane Asylum (construction),	115,000.00
Agnew Insane Asylum (construction),	235,775.00
Napa Insane Asylum,	216,871.00
Stockton Insane Asylum,	293,569.00
Home for Feeble-minded,	35,367.00
Orphan asylums,	250,516 00
Indigent aged persons,	214,566.00
Amount carried forward,	$2,252,328.00

Amount brought forward,	$2,252,328.00
Veterans' Home,	27,516.00
Home for Soldiers, Widows, and Orphans,	10,000.00
Juvenile Reform School,	196,675.00
Leprosy Fund,	4,126 00
Total,	$2,490,645.00

Colorado.— An act was passed by the Eighth General Assembly (1891) creating a State Board of Charities and Corrections, after nearly two years of systematic effort, dating back to the return of the delegates in attendance to the San Francisco Conference. This effort was backed by both political party conventions. The outgoing governor (Cooper) and the incoming governor (Routt) were brought into active interest, and each in his message urged the importance of such a Board, all this resulting in a unanimous favorable vote in both Houses. A number of other bills are now pending in the legislature, relating to the dependent and delinquent classes of the State, the outcome of which can be reported later.

Connecticut.— The legislature in 1891 made the kindergarten a part of the regular school system. The present legislature is in a dead-lock, and thus far nothing has been done.

Illinois.— The legislature has appropriated $2,792,767 for the expense of the eleven State institutions for the year ending July 1, 1891. An appropriation has also been made for the building of an insane asylum for insane criminals.

A bill is now before the legislature which provides for the placing of county charitable institutions under boards of trustees appointed for long terms, and to serve as the trustees of State institutions do, without pay. This to take county institutions out from under county political control. The passage of the bill is problematical.

Indian Territory.— The old tribal government is gradually being thrust into the background, and there are being substituted the codes and court systems of the States. In Oklahoma — now but two years opened to settlement — the people have grappled with the problem of general legislation, and have a code of laws similar to, and largely copied from, that of South Dakoka.

Maine.— The drift of legislation has been to better provide for the children in public institutions, by better classification and by increasing State aid to those institutions supported in part by private charities. Increased attention is being given to the care of the insane, and to the securing a reformatory prison for women. Appropriations have been made in aid of the Catholic and Portland Orphan Asylum,

the Temporary Home for Women and Children, and the Children's Bangor House, aggregating about $2,500; for the State Prison, $10,150; Reform School for Boys, $25,000; Industrial School $7,000; Military and Naval Orphan Asylum, $8,500.

Massachusetts.— The legislature appropriated in 1890 the following amounts for the purposes named: —

To be expended by or under the State Board of Lunacy and Charity,	$358,100.00
For State Almshouse at Tewksbury,	108,500.00
State Farm at Bridgewater,	65,000.00
Lyman School for Boys,	42,375.00
School for Feeble-minded and hospital cottages,	31,000.00
Prison commissioners, agents, and expenses,	25,175 00
Reformatory at Concord,	165,000.00
General Superintendent of Prisons,	6,400.00
State Primary School,	55,000.00
Industrial School (girls),	21,000.00
Eye and Ear Infirmary,	15,000.00
State Prison,	137,500.00
Woman's Reformatory,	56,000.00
Maintenance of prison industries,	255,000.00
Improvements and construction at State institutions,	223,500.00
Total,	$1,564,550.00

Besides this, the law requires an expenditure by the cities and towns, for the insane and feeble-minded in State institutions, of some $400,000 a year; and the cities and towns also pay not less than $1,250,000 more for charities, and the counties some $350,000 for prisons,— in all, therefore, not less than $3,500,000 raised by taxation.

Michigan.— The legislature now in session has enacted no laws regarding the State charitable, penal, or reformatory matters. Some very radical legislation is proposed, such as consolidating all the prison and Reformatory boards in one board, all the insane asylum boards in one board, the boards of the State Public School, School for the Deaf, and School for the Blind in one board, and abolishing the State Board of Corrections and Charities.*

Minnesota.— The State appropriations for the year ending July 31, 1891, were as follows: —

* Insane asylum boards and State Board of Corrections and Charities were saved, others were consolidated as proposed (July, 1891).

Institutions.	*Current Expenses.*	*Buildings, etc.*	*Totals.*
Three hospitals for the insane, .	$397,400.00	$7,000.00	$404,400.00
Soldiers' Home, ...	20,000 00	1,000.00	21,000.00
School for the Deaf, ...	45,000.00		45,000.00
School for the Blind, ...	16,400.00	21,500.00	37,900.00
The Feeble-minded School, . .	58,000.00		58,000.00
Dependent children (school), . .	21,900.00	16,250.00	38,150.00
Reform School, ...	45,000.00	750.00	28,750 00
State Reformatory, ...	28,000.00	750.00	28,750.00
State Prison, ...	65,600.00	31,250.00	96,850.00
Totals, ...	$697,300.00	$78,500.00	$775,800.00

The legislature is still in session.

New York.— The most important legislative measure in behalf of the dependent classes has been that providing that all the pauper and indigent insane shall be supported entirely by the State, besides which laws passed establishing a house of refuge for women in Western New York similar to that in Eastern New York, obliging local authorities of all cities with a population of 25,000 or more to provide police matrons for care of women in station houses and requiring local authorities of all cities to provide for the complete separation of the sexes in prisons and station houses, requiring the appointment of a competent woman physician in each State insane hospital, and that insane or feeble-minded women shall have female attendants when in transit to institutions. The name of the State asylums for insane has been changed to "hospitals."

North Carolina.— The legislature has changed the name of the Western North Carolina insane "asylum" to "State Hospital."

North Dakota.— The legislature made a liberal appropriation for the Deaf and Dumb Asylum and to establish an asylum for the blind. The appropriations for existing charitable and correctional institutions compare favorably with those of wealthier and older States. The low limit of State indebtedness, fixed by the constitutional convention of two years ago, compelled the legislature to be less liberal toward existing institutions than their requirements demanded.

Ohio.— A bill is now pending before the legislature, compelling prosecuting attorneys to make necessary inquiries and allegations, which will render more efficient the cumulative offence law of 1885, which was among the most important enacted of late years in Ohio, effecting the proper sentencing of habitual criminals and incorrigible misdemeanants. Legislation, looking to the establishment of an asylum for epileptics, is making gratifying progress. Appropriations

are accorded for the completion of the State Reformatory, at Mansfield, on the Elmira plan.

Rhode Island.— The legislature has had under consideration a State home and school for dependent children, and a plan for the industrial training of children, for which an appropriation was made of $25,000.

For maintenance of State institutions (appropriated), ...	$209,021.37
For construction, ...	139,647.81

Utah.— Up to 1882 the legislature, consisting of high officials of the Mormon Church, made no appropriations for charitable or reformatory institutions. Since that time the Territorial Asylum for the Insane, Reform School, and Deaf-mute Institute have been established.

Vermont.— The laws pertaining to settlement of paupers have been much simplified; and it is now the duty of every town to support all paupers found in it, whether transients or residents, with the exception of the insane, defective, and tramps. The establishment of the Waterbury State Asylum for the Insane and of a State Board of Health is of recent date,— both within the last five years.

Wisconsin.— The legislature now in session appears to be revolutionary in its tendencies. A bill has just passed the Senate, creating a new board of control for the penal and charitable institutions, and abolishing the present board of supervision and the State Board of Charities and Reform. It will inaugurate a new experiment,— a thing, as we believe, of doubtful expediency,— the union of management and supervision in a single board.*

Miscellaneous.

Arizona.— Ten million dollars have been left for philanthropic uses by the will of "Diamond Joe" Reynolds, who recently died in Arizona. A training school for boys will be one of the institutions founded by this fund.

Colorado.— The State Secretary says: "Already in our young Commonwealth we see the outcropping of many problems which have disturbed the social and economic conditions of older communities. But we are encouraged in the hope that we may profit by applying some timely remedies, and thus avoid some problems which have overwhelmed other States and cities where the pernicious pauper

* This change was made (July, 1891).

system of the past has taken such strong root that its eviction is very difficult."

Indian Territory.— "The idea of an Indian State has taken hold of the people. In no other way will it be possible to prevent the final extinction of the race, and the speedy loss of the lands now owned by the civilized tribes. With proper safeguards, an Indian State would be no disadvantage to the Union, while it would be more in keeping with civilization and Christianity than the present system, which leaves the Indian helpless."

Rhode Island.— Has a Prisoners' Aid Association, composed of women, which cares for women and girls discharged from the prisons. Its Home is a recognized power for good, and largely supported from the industries carried on by the inmates. A great need is a reformatory for women, and a woman physician to care for all women and girls in State institutions. There is reasonable hope for both of these as the result of constant agitation.

Tennessee.— Knox County has promised to establish a reformatory for women and children, and erect a new building for the poor asylum. Our Corresponding Secretary says, "We hope to have something to report next year that we shall not be ashamed of."

Utah.— "About 1,500 Indians, remnants of tribes, are to be found scattered throughout the Territory. About 600 of them obtain a livelihood by farming, raising live stock, etc., and are gradually becoming peaceful in their pursuits. The remainder are leading vagabond lives. They long ago renounced all tribal relations, and roam at will, and are degraded and ignorant. The governor has more than once recommended that the general government provide in some way for their care and support."

All of which is respectfully submitted.

L. C. STORRS, *Lansing, Mich.*,
H. H. HART, *St. Paul, Minn.*,
A. O. WRIGHT, *Madison, Wis.*,
F. B. SANBORN, *Concord, Mass.*,
Committee on Reports from States.

APPENDIX TO REPORTS FROM STATES.

The report from Indiana was so important, in view of the meeting of the Conference in that State, that it is given entire. As there seemed to be some misunderstanding on the subject, abstracts of reports from other States have been added at the suggestion of one of the members of the committee.

INDIANA.

1. Estimated population, 2,200,000.

2. The State has a Board of State Charities.

3. Reports are received by this Board, on blanks prepared by them for the purpose, of the expenditures by the public authorities for charitable and correctional uses, though not in so great detail as would be desirable, especially as to the cost of the prisoners in the jails, etc.

4. The charitable expenditure of the State is divided between the State and the counties. We have no town system of relief. The State provides for the insane, the blind, the deaf, and the feeble-minded youth. For the insane, the State provision is both treatment and care; for the blind and deaf, it is educational; for the feeble-minded, educational and custodial care. The State also provides to a limited extent for dependent children in its Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home. The counties provide for the poor in asylums and by outdoor relief, and for dependent children,—some of them in county orphans' homes, some in the poor asylum, some by placing out in families. For delinquents the State provides prisons for graver offenders, the counties jails and in some cases workhouses for minor offenders. For juvenile delinquents the State provides reformatories, the counties paying one-half of the per capita expense of those sent to them.

5. A. *The Insane.*

Average number for the year 1890 in State hospitals,	1,904	
Average number for the year 1890 in county poor asylums,	421	
Average number for the year 1890 in private institutions, estimated,	25	
Total,	2,350	
Cost of the insane in State hospitals,		$356,140.00
Cost of the insane in county poor asylums,		63,150.00
Total,		$419,290.00

B. *The Public Poor.*

Whole number, no statistics.		
Average number in county poor asylums,	3,264	
Cost of asylums for poor, excluding construction,		$243,518.34
Number receiving outdoor relief, no statistics.		
Cost of outdoor relief, including medical treatment,		560,232.65
Total for poor relief,		$803,751.00

C. *Dependent Children.*

In county homes supported by taxation, with some trifling aid from private charity, average number,	1,460	
Estimated cost of children in county homes,		$130,000.00
In State institutions, Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home, average number,	540	
Cost of State Orphans' Home, estimated,		80,000.00
In orphanages of religious societies (Roman Catholics), estimated,	400	
Lutheran, estimated,	250	
No statistics as to cost.		
In endowed orphan asylums, non-sectarian,	85	
Total dependent children,	2,735	

Very little work is done in sending children out of the State,—probably about an average of 40 sent annually.

No systematic work in receiving children from other States, but probably 100 to 150 are brought from the Eastward and annually placed in Indiana.

D. *The Prisoners.*

In State prisons, average number, men, 1,325; women, 60,	1,385	
Cost above earnings, *nil.* An apparent profit of about $8,000 in 1890.		
Reform School for Boys, average number,	461	
Reform School for Boys, cost,		$63,411.92
Reform School for Girls, average number,	152	
Reform School for Girls, cost,		28,806.20
Prisoners in jails and workhouses, no statistics of any value.		
Total cost reported, about		$85,000.00

E. *Immigrants.*

No statistics of any kind.

6. The general drift of legislation during the past five years has been towards a more adequate support of the dependent and defective classes and better methods of treatment for the delinquents. The important laws enacted in this regard have been that establishing

a Board of State Charities; the law establishing a Board of Children's Guardians, which can obtain control over children in danger of moral corruption and rescue them; the law for the equipment of additional hospitals for the insane, designed to receive all the insane into State care; the law providing, on a liberal scale, for the building and equipment of the School for Feeble-minded; the law regulating the industrial education of the deaf, blind, and feeble-minded; and the law granting Indianapolis a new charter and increasing the powers of the police court in dealing with misdemeanants.

APPROPRIATIONS FOR THE YEAR 1890.

By the State.

Total for charitable institutions, maintenance,	$724,191.16
Total for charitable institutions, construction,	345,719.66
Total for correctional institutions, maintenance,	274,440.20
Total for correctional institutions, construction,	38,256.01
Grand total,	$1,382,607.03
Deduct earnings of prisoners, etc.,	195,755.23
Grand total, net,	$1,187,315.89

By the Counties.

Total cost of asylums for the poor,	$243,518.44
Total cost of outdoor relief,	560,232.65
Total cost of orphans,	101,541.99
Total county expenses,	$905,293.08
Grand total by State and counties for maintenance of charitable institutions and for relief, omitting construction,	$1,629,484.24

ARIZONA.

Population, 59,620.

The number and cost of the insane, the State prisoners, and immigrants for the current year, I have been unable to obtain.

The various county boards of supervisors provide for the indigent poor and sick, if cared for at all.

Circulars were twice sent to these various boards of the ten counties in the Territory, asking for information; but only six returned answers, and these are for the most part imperfect.

The following table is arranged from these circulars, and includes also the population of each county: —

Counties.	*Apache.*	*Cochise.*	*Gila.*	*Graham.*	*Maricopa.*	*Mohave.*	*Pima.*	*Pinal.*	*Yavapai.*	*Yuma.*
Population.	4,281	6,938	2,021	5,670	10,986	1,444	12,673	4,251	8,695	2,671
Have you a poor-house?	No.	No.		No.		No.		No.		No.
If not, how are the dependent poor cared for, and their number and cost?	None.	Monthly allowance, Total, '90, $1,958.35.	No return.	Monthly allowance, $10–$25.	No return.	None.	No return.	None.	No return.	None.
Are any children cared for or sent from the Territory and the cost?	No.	No.		No.		No.		No.		No.
Have you a county hospital? If so, what is the number and cost of patients?	No.	*Yes.* Average, eleven per diem. $5,678.97		*Yes.* 15 patients. $2,600*		No.		No.		No.
Are any religious sects or others engaged in charitable or other philanthropic work?	No.	No.		No.		No.		No.		No.
What is the number of county prisoners for the year and their cost? Are they engaged in labor?	17 $782 No.	6½ prisoners per diem. 36 cts. per diem. No.		35 75 cts. per diem. No.						20 $20 No.

The Territorial Commissioner of Immigration has caused to be published a book — in pamphlet form — relative to the Territory, its resources, etc., as a guide to immigrants. And it is his duty to assist them when they actually arrive, but no record whatever is kept of their number or nationality.

There was no especial legislation at the last session of the legislature relative to any of the classes in question.

THOMAS DARLINGTON, M.D.

IOWA.

Population, 1890, 1,911,896.

Iowa has neither State Board of Charities, Lunacy Commission, nor Prison Superintendent. Institutions receiving State aid are re-

quired to make reports biennially to the governor and legislature; but neither county, municipal, nor private charities are reported at the State capitol.

Paupers are county charges, and are provided for by the County Board of Supervisors. Counties pay for the support in the State institutions of dependants who have legal residence. The State pays for the support of convicts in the penitentiaries, of soldiers' orphans in the State Orphans' Home, and of the insane in the State hospitals who have no known legal residence.

The insane are cared for at three State hospitals, twelve or fourteen county hospitals, and in the various poorhouses. No reports are made except those of State institutions, which are as follows: —

	Whole No.	*Average No.*	*Per capita.*
Mt. Pleasant, ...	1,460	784	$179.08
Independence, ...	1,421	787	184.01
Clarinda, ...	300		107.42
Anamosa (Criminal), . .	32		106.92

Estimated number of insane in the State, not in these institutions, 1,500. No means of ascertaining the per capita cost of their maintenance, nor how many are supported at private and how many at public cost.

No means of knowing the whole number of poor nor the cost of their support; no means of knowing the number of inmates in the almshouses, infirmaries, hospitals, or other places of indoor relief; no means of knowing cost for the year of outdoor relief, neither of the total nor average number of beneficiaries.

Children are maintained in homes, as follows: State Orphans' Home, 370. Of that number, 282 are supported by the counties from which they were sent; 88 by the State, being soldiers' orphans; per capita cost, $120. Christian Home, a faith institution in Council Bluffs, cares for an average number of 70 children from infancy to fourteen years. Admitted during the year 1880, 54; placed in homes, 51; per capita cost, $125. Children's Home at Des Moines, under the auspices of the local Women's Christian Temperance Union, from which no report could be obtained. A new home for children is under way in Dickinson County, eight miles from Spirit Lake, through the generosity of a private citizen, Mr. Daniel Pierce. A tract of 2,300 acres of land has been purchased, one-half of which is already under cultivation. Fencing, capacious barns, and large and well-appointed greenhouses have been completed, at a cost of $35,-

000. A farther fund of $100,000 is available for the purposes of the home, and the early completion of the home is expected.

There is no "organization for sending poor children out of the State." Iowa is year by year planning to care for her own more amply and according to the most approved methods. The Iowa Auxiliary to the American Educational Aid Association is incorporated under the laws of the State to find homes for homeless children, and to assist specially deserving but needy young girls to obtain an education. The Iowa branch was organized in November, 1888, and has since that time found good homes for 277 children. A feature of this organization which commends it to the highest commendation is the adequate supervision of the children so placed until they reach their majority by means of local advisory boards throughout the State.

APPROPRIATIONS FOR 1890–91.

Hospital for Insane, Clarinda,	$180,400.00
Hospital for Insane, Independence,	20,000.00
Hospital for Insane, Mt. Pleasant,	37,100.00
Penitentiary, Anamosa,	38,850.00
Penitentiary, Fort Madison,	9,700.00
Prisoners' Aid Association,	1,000.00
Industrial School, Boys', Eldorado,	20,850.00
Industrial School, Girls', Mitchellville,	18,125.00
Benedict Home, Decorah,	6,000.00
Institute for Deaf and Dumb, Council Bluffs,	26,050.00
Institute for Feeble-minded, Glenwood,	41,600.00
College for the Blind, Vinton,	8,000.00
Soldiers' Home, Marshalltown,	38,250.00
Orphans' Home, Davenport,	46,000.00
Visiting State institutions,	710.19
	$492,635.19

MONTANA. [E. D. W. HATCH.]

There are no State institutions for the blind or the deaf and dumb. There is no reform school, though there should be, that youth be not sent to the State Prison, but confined for offences where they can receive common education, learn trades, and learn to become honest men. The poor are well cared for in each county, the counties having poorhouses and farms for that purpose.

The Insane Asylum at Warm Springs, Deer Lodge, Mont., is said to be one of the best managed in the United States. The penitentiary management is also highly commended.

Montana is still a young State, with the peculiar record of coming into the Union out of debt and with money in her treasury, so that in due time we trust such charities and reforms as we are still without will belong to us, with the latest and most approved methods.

There are no printed reports. Annual reports are made to the Board of Trustees. St. Peter's Hospital, Helena, Mont. (Episcopal), open to all.

From June, 1890, to present (the year begins in June): —

Patients admitted,		373
Charity cases,		24
	Men, 339	
	Women, 34	

The Roman Catholics have a hospital, and a house of refuge for fallen women, called the Good Shepherd, and in care of the Sisters of that order.

There is a Working Woman's Home, not denominational, but with officers from each of the Protestant churches. There is a county house for the destitute poor, where provision is made also for the sick. There is an organization of ladies to look after the poor and strangers. It consists of one visitor for each ward. They are appointed by the city authorities, and report destitute cases to them and distribute the money given by the city for such objects. Much good is done by them, and the system prevents much indiscriminate charity.

NEW JERSEY.

State Prison at Trenton, John H. Patterson, principal keeper. Accommodations for 700 inmates. Now has 1,000. Women are kept in a separated part, under the care of Mrs. Patterson. No males allowed in this department. The prison in all its departments is admirably kept and well managed. A school for those who desire is maintained.

An appropriation bill of $100,000 has passed the legislature to erect a new cell wing, and one of $30,000 to erect a hospital.

A State Asylum for Insane is located at Morristown, perhaps the most extensive and expensive in the United States. There is also another one near Trenton. Both are overcrowded. At the latter a new building has been completed during the last year. This building is said by those competent to judge to be a model for its use and kind.

The State Reform School at Jamesburg, for boys, has a capacity

for 350 inmates. It is on the cottage or family plan in the midst of a farm of 490 acres. 387 boys were at one time during the year on its roll as inmates, besides over 500 under the age of twenty-one years, who are out on parole or indenture, who are still under the supervision of the school.

An appropriation bill has been passed, granting $8,000 to build a new family cottage and $7,000 to build a new chapel building, besides $5,000 to increase the facilities for manual training.

The State Industrial School for Girls is located near Trenton. It has accommodations for 45. Has about 60 inmates. An appropriation to erect a new building to increase their accommodations has been passed.

Boys and girls between the ages of eight and sixteen years can be committed during their minority to their respective institutions. (In fact, girls are now under the care of their school until twenty-one years of age, as well as boys.)

The State Home for Feeble-minded Women is at Vineland. Accommodations are provided for about 30. More are needed, and a new building is about being erected.

Opposite it, across the street, is a Home for Feeble-minded Children. A private corporation owns it, but children may be sent to it and maintained at State expense upon approval of the governor.

A school for deaf-mutes is situated at Trenton. About 100 children are at present maintained in it. New buildings are soon to be erected to increase its capacity. Children may be taught and maintained in it at State expense for eight years.

The State Normal and Model Schools are supported by the State, and male and female pupils prepared for teaching. Both of these, together with the Farnum Preparatory School, are under the control of the State Board of Education.

Besides these State institutions, every county has a jail; and in some counties there are county almshouses. In others they provide for the poor in township almshouses or board them out.

Essex County and Hudson County have each a penitentiary and an insane asylum. Camden County also has an insane asylum.

The city of Newark has a City Home for wayward boys and girls. This is not a walled in refuge, but a reform school on the open farm system. They have about 150 children in it, and are doing good work both in educational and industrial training.

So far as can be learned, all institutions throughout the State have

their capacity taxed to the utmost, and new extensions are contemplated.

During the last two years there has been a law enacted to compel the separation of children from adult criminals in jails, station houses, and all other institutions, and requiring the proper authorities to provide for such accommodations where not already done.

By an act authorizing it, the governor has appointed a commission of five to visit intermediate reformatories where established, to prepare a system for grading the inmates, prepare plans, with cost, to accommodate 500 inmates, and to select a site.

The commission have presented such a report, but for want of an appropriation work has not been begun.

The plans presented are to provide for 500 inmates, to be divided in three grades, at a cost of $300,000 or less, if convicts from the State Prison are allowed to work upon it in its erection. It is proposed to take young men between the ages of sixteen and thirty years who are convicted for the first time; and sentence is recommended to be on the indeterminate sentence plan.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Population, 5,258,014.

A.

Whole number of insane,	7,399	
Cost for the year 1890, excluding construction expenses,		$1,324,049.10
Private patients,	931	
Public patients,	6,468	

B.

Number in insane hospitals,	5,754	
Number of insane in almshouses,	1,587	
Number of insane in prisons,	58	
Public poor in 71 county and district almshouses, whole number remaining Sept. 30, 1890, including the 1,587 insane inmates,	9,026	
Amount expended for their support, deducting receipts,		1,521,984.17
Outdoor relief in 71 almshouse districts, whole number supported during the year ending Sept. 30, 1890,	18,036	
Expended for their support,		260,875.52
Township poor in 32 counties: whole number supported during the year,	5,265	
Amount expended for their support,		323,276.22

C.

Whole number of children in homes and poorhouses on Sept. 30, 1890, about	*10,781

Four hundred and ninety-eight different children were supported in families during the year 1890, ending September 30.

D.

Whole number of prisoners on Sept. 30, 1890,	†9,088	
Cost of support above earnings,		$1,112,750.09
Number in State penitentiaries and State reformatory Sept. 30, 1890,	2,090	
Cost therein above earnings derived from labor,		248,633.49
At the Eastern State Penitentiary at Philadelphia, number of prisoners remaining Sept. 30, 1890,	1,026	
Average daily number,	1,110	
Cost of support per annum per capita, labor and profits deducted,		65.44
At the Western State Penitentiary at Allegheny, number of prisoners remaining Sept. 30, 1890,	732	
Average daily number,	689	
Cost of support per annum per capita, labor and profits deducted,		147.97
Number in county jails, workhouses, houses of correction, and houses of refuge,	6,998	
Cost above earnings derived from labor,		864,116.60

A State Industrial Reformatory for young men between fifteen and twenty-five years (first offenders) was opened at Huntingdon Feb. 15, 1889; and the number remaining Sept. 30, 1890, was 332.

E.

Immigrants.—Number received during the year ending June 30, 1890,	22,341

From Ireland, 5,342
England, 4,497
Switzerland, 27
Sweden, 1,806
Norway, 977
Spain, 13
Hungary, 268
Greece, 337
Germany, 3,607
France, 80
From Wales, 101
Scotland, 959
Russia, 981
Poland, 1,604
Belgium, 203
Holland, 27
Italy, 95
Denmark, 387
Austria, 356
Unknown, 12
All other countries, 662.

*Of this number, 445 are reported in Section B, the public poor.

†Of this number, 1,244 were inmates of houses of refuge.

The State Board of Charities, by appointment of the Secretary of the Treasury, acts as an Immigration Board.

The State appropriations to the various institutions for the year 1890 amounted to $1,535,508.70.

TENNESSEE.

The State of Tennessee has no Board of Charities.

There are four hospitals for the insane, large, commodious, well-constructed buildings, fitted with all modern conveniences and appliances. These institutions were built by the State, at a cost of from two to four hundred thousand dollars for each, or an aggregate of more than one million dollars for the four. They have a capacity of 1,800 patients, and now contain about 1,200 inmates. The first or central hospital for insane whites is about six miles from Nashville. The hospital for insane negroes is in the same vicinity, and both are under one superintendent and management.

The East Tennessee hospital for insane whites is near Knoxville.

The West Tennessee hospital for whites, completed and put in operation within the past two years, is at Bolivar. These four institutions are operated under the direction of a board of directors selected for each by the governor of the State, and by superintendents chosen by the said board and at the State's expense.

The State has also a large and well-conducted asylum for the blind at Nashville. At Knoxville it has an asylum for the deaf and dumb, which educates and cares for a large number of that unfortunate class of children. It has also at Nashville the Tennessee Industrial School for Boys, established about five years ago. Its object is to educate, mentally, physically, and morally, the wayward and incorrigible boys of the State. No criminal children are admitted.

Steps are being taken to establish a similar one for girls, and also a reformatory for criminal boys. The Industrial School has now 185 boys; and 80 boys who have been educated and trained in it are occupying positions in various departments of business and trades, with faithfulness and credit. Only two who have been released have shown any taint of their former bad habits. The State has also a penitentiary at Nashville and two branch prisons at coal mines in East Tennessee. The building at Nashville was erected in 1826, and is poorly constructed, and unfitted for the purpose of a prison under modern ideas.

The branch prisons at the mines are likewise poor affairs. The State operates its prisons under the lease system, which, while it has proven a financial success, is growing in unpopularity; and the cry from every source demands new buildings and better facilities for caring for the convicts, and for their physical and moral welfare. The various counties of the State operate county poorhouses under a general State law by which they are governed; and the aged poor, the infirm and dependent, of each county are amply cared for. This is the case in the more populous counties.

At the last session of the General Assembly of the State, through the intervention of the county judge of Davidson County, a law was enacted, giving to counties of forty thousand inhabitants and over the right to build and maintain asylums for the insane, inebriates, and poor on a much larger and a more systematic method than the old poorhouse system. Davidson County has already availed herself of the benefits of this law by purchasing six hundred acres of splendid farming land near the city of Nashville, and is now receiving plans for the erection of a building with all modern conveniences for the insane, and one for the poor, at a cost of not less than two hundred and fifty thousand dollars.

In addition to these public charities of State and county, we have various Protestant private orphan asylums.

The county judge of Davidson County, under the law, has the authority and power to care for orphan, neglected, and deserted children; and he has established a system which has enabled him to provide with good and responsible people homes for more than 100 children, not as servants, but as members of the family, to be educated and brought up to usefulness, or by adoption as children of their own.

The Mission Home is an institution, under the direction of a number of charitable ladies, for the care and reformation of fallen women. There is also the home for aged dependent women.

Among the best charitable institutions of the city is the Nashville Relief Society, an organization under the direction of a board of lady managers, with an advisory board of men. The purpose of this society is to look into all cases of destitution and distress, give the necessary relief, and to provide homes and employment, especially for women and children; and, while aid is always extended where needed, the grand object sought to be arrived at is to render the poor self-reliant. The Home for Aged Women was established by

this society. There is also the Hebrew Relief Society, with similar objects and aims as the Nashville Relief Society. Five kindergarten free schools have within the past two years been established in Nashville, and are doing much good. The Watkins Night Free School is a charitable work for the education of those who on account of working during the day are deprived of school privileges.

The cities of Knoxville, Chattanooga, Memphis, and Jackson, and many others, have well-managed charities.

(Signed)

R. R. Caldwell. W. C. Kilvington.
W. P. Jones. Fannie Battle.
J. H. Jordon. Mrs. R. R. Caldwell.
Miss Susie Lyle.

WISCONSIN.

This State has 8,000 Indians,— Chippewas, Winnebagoes, Menominees, Oneidas, Stockbridges, and Brothertowns. There are nearly as many Indians as now live in all the other States east of the Mississippi combined. Of these, the Brothertown Indians are entirely civilized, and are equal in all respects to the average white farmers of the State; and the others are fast rising to that condition. Land will soon be held in severalty by all of them. A few Winnebagoes still are vagabonds, but the rest are all earning their living by farming or lumbering. All except the Winnebagoes and Stockbridges are Christians. The public schools are open to Indian children. Another generation will see the Indians in Wisconsin entirely absorbed.

XVII.

Minutes and Discussions.

SECRETARY'S REPORT.

FIRST SESSION.

Indianapolis, Ind., May 13, 1891.

The opening session of the Eighteenth National Conference of Charities and Correction was held in Plymouth Church, Indianapolis, Wednesday evening, May 13, 1891. After music, a brief opening address was made by Mr. Hugh H. Hanna, chairman of the Local Committee (page 1). Addresses of welcome were also given by Governor A. P. Hovey, Mayor Thomas Sullivan, and W. P. Fishback, Esq. (pages 2–4). Responses were made by F. B. Sanborn of Boston, John Glenn of Baltimore, and Miss Clara Barton of Washington (pages 7–9). The address of the President, Rev. Oscar C. McCulloch, followed (page 10).

Hon. Andrew E. Elmore moved that a Business Committee of five should be appointed by the President, to whom all resolutions and motions should be referred; also, a Committee on Organization, to consist of the President and ex-Presidents of the Conference, the secretaries or some other representative of the several State Boards of Charities, and one member from each State not having a State Board, and from each Territory and the District of Columbia; that the delegates from each State, Territory, and the District of Columbia, choose one of their number to act as a member of the Committee on Credentials and one of their number to act as a member of the Committee on Time and Place of the next Conference. Voted.

On motion of Philip C. Garrett, of Pennsylvania, it was voted that remarks following papers should be limited,— that no person should speak more than five minutes, except by unanimous consent, and that no person should speak twice until every one had an opportunity to speak.

The President said that every one in Indiana who loved pure, sweet sentiment loved James Whitcomb Riley. He then introduced Mr. Riley, who gave "A Character Study: An Incident of the Insane Asylum." The sketch was given in a dialect of broken German. It was the experience of a shoemaker who for many years was an inmate of the Indianapolis Insane Asylum. "The story," said Mr. Riley, "is true in every particular. The shoemaker was a citizen of my native town, and is still a resident there, greatly beloved. When I was about twelve years old, there came to my town from the German country a man with a family,— possibly three children,— and opened a little shop. His German name being hard to pronounce, he was soon known as 'Dutch Frank.' He began business in a shop of a single room. There was something about him that drew every one toward him. He was a man of considerable humor, honest, truthful, loving,— a man whom little children loved. Fair and honest, he prospered, so that at last he got a little capital ahead and owned a new building. In the course of five or six years he rented a tenement-house which brought him in a fair revenue. His children, Augusta, Frank, and Joseph, he was very fond of. Suddenly it was rumored about town that Frank had become insane. They said he would not speak. He would not say a word of any kind. He would not answer the commonest questions. Physicians were called; and it was found necessary to send him to the insane hospital, not because the condition of the man was dangerous, but because he needed treatment. Years went by, so many that I dare not tell. Less than five years ago I visited my native town, and I saw a single little one-room shop, and I went into it. There sat a bowed old man, with his hair nearly gone, but with the brightest, sweetest light of life and cheer and hope and health and thankfulness I ever saw. It was my old friend, 'Dutch Frank,' just exactly as he used to be. I asked him his story, and he told it simply." Mr. Riley then told the story in broken German. In brief, it was that the shoemaker had imagined during all those years that a voice was saying to him, "If you speak a single word, they will kill you." For years he did not venture to speak. At last, in the silence of the night, he had buried his face in the pillow and had whispered the little prayer that his mother had taught him in Germany. More years passed. His children were growing up. One day, when his daughter was visiting him, he could resist the impulse of his affection no longer; and, taking her aside, he said to himself, I do not care if they do kill me: I must tell

her. And then he spoke aloud, "My little girl, I love you very much." "And they don' kill me," said "Dutch Frank," "and that the way I find out that I ain't crazy."

The exercises of the first evening were closed with the benediction pronounced by Bishop Knickerbocker.

SECOND SESSION.

Thursday morning, May 14.

The Conference was called to order at 9.30 P.M. by President McCulloch. Prayer was offered by Monsignor Rev. Aug. Bessonies.

President McCULLOCH.— I ask you to notice that the programme is laid down on lines drawn by the last Conference. The subjects considered were fixed by that Conference. The papers to be presented are within the limits of these subjects. Other subjects can come in, but incidentally.

I have assured the various committees that they will be protected in their time. At the opening of each session there will be a half-hour for business. The certain subject of the session will then be taken up as is indicated upon the programme or in the bulletin. The time allotted to each report is thirty minutes; and there will be in addition one paper of twenty minutes. This time is fixed by resolution of the Conference. This will leave an hour for discussion, which I hope will be distributed so that a limit of five minutes will be fixed for each speaker. It is a well-determined truth that there are no conversions after thirty minutes. Many brilliant sayings, much valuable information, can be conveyed in five minutes. It will be well for us to remember that there are many questions which cannot be considered at any one session of the Conference. Some must be left for other days, and for our successors. It is better that we handle a few subjects well than that we consider many subjects superficially. I trust that I may rely upon your good nature, when the gavel falls, to assume that the President's watch is correct, and that there is no extension of time. Further, I shall expect that the Conference will sustain me in this endeavor to carry out its wishes as to time. Leave to print can be given those whose paper or report does not fall within the limit of time; and the courteous and competent official reporter and editor will see that full justice is done.

About two-thirds of the reports and papers — all, indeed, that had been received up to the time of the Conference — have been prepared

for newspaper publication. Slips of them, in full or in abstract, have been sent out through the Associated Press to every large newspaper in the country. Full reports will appear in our daily papers, and these may be had at the desk of the newspaper clerk.

I urge upon all that they shall say some word upon subjects that interest them. All fear abandon, ye who enter here. Here all are friends. We have no theories, no fixed opinions. There is the largest toleration and the freest discussion and the kindliest spirit. Like Michel Angelo, we carry the satchel still. Introduce yourselves to each other. Let the badge and the button be the warrant for friendly greeting. The daily bulletin will be the means of introducing you to each other.

I trust that I shall be able to lay down this office with the same place in your good will which I had when I took it up.

The following committee was then announced: —

On Resolutions, Messrs. A. E. Elmore, Wisconsin, John W. Willis, Minnesota, John G. Doren, Ohio, Rt. Rev. G. D. Gillespie, Michigan, and Mrs. Anne B. Richardson, Massachusetts.

Letters were read from Baron F. von Reichenstein, Baden, Prof. Dr. Franz V. Listz of Halle, J. Bryce of Great Britain, and from Professor Francis Wayland of Connecticut.

A resolution, of which the following is the substance, was offered by Dr. David Rogers of New York, and was referred to the Committee on Resolutions: —

Whereas alcoholic liquors used as a beverage produce an amount of evil and crime reaching beyond the comprehension of mind, it is in every way proper for the National Conference of Charities and Correction, in every sense a philanthropic body, actuated with charity for the errings of our fellow-man, to consider such a question; and it is further the duty of such a body to deliberate upon this evil, and, if possible, to solve the problem of correction of the intemperate imbibing of alcoholic liquors.

Therefore, *Resolved*, That this Conference appoint a committee to consider and report upon the intemperate use of alcoholic liquors, and recommend what action should be taken in this matter, such action to be non-political, and the committee to consist of one delegate from each State represented in the Conference.

The subject for the morning, Reports from States, was then taken up. In the absence of the chairman, L. S. Storrs of Michigan, the report was made by Mr. A. O. Wright and Mr. H. H. Hart (page 256).

On motion of Mr. F. B. Sanborn, it was voted that five-minute ver-

bal reports might be made by representatives from different States after the reading of the report.

The report from Iowa was read by Dr. Jennie McCowen. The report from Indiana was read by Mr. L. A. Barnett.

Rev. J. L. LEUCHT, president of Commissioners of Prison Asylums, New Orleans, La., asked to speak with reference to that State.

Rabbi LEUCHT.— I have handed to the Secretary a printed report of the Conference of Charities of New Orleans. But I must confess that we in Louisiana are far behind the Western and Northern States. I only wish that our people could have witnessed the gathering of this Conference last night; for then, I am sure, we should make much quicker progress than we are now making. The city of New Orleans has appointed a Commission of Prisons and Asylums, whose members receive no emolument and serve only for the love of the thing. Its duties are only of a supervising kind. We report to the mayor and city council; and, if our criticisms are found to be true and not in opposition to the political power, we are listened to. We have succeeded in doing a good deal of good. One great difficulty that we experience in New Orleans is that we have no place for the insane who are arrested on the street. We have found, for instance, in one week, nineteen insane people taken to the workhouse because we had no place to put them. The State has only an asylum at Jackson, some hundreds of miles away. The problem arises, What are we going to do with these people? They have been treated as criminals, put in cells, in dismal, dark, and miserable surroundings. We have come up here for the purpose of finding out what you in the West do with cases of this kind. For the present the city has made an arrangement with the Sisters of Charity of the House of the Good Shepherd to care for them. We pay eighty-five cents a day, or now sixty-five cents, to maintain them in these Catholic asylums until we find some method of caring for these insane people.

The report from Delaware was made by Mrs. M. A. T. Clark, superintendent of Associated Charities.

Mr. SIMPSON ELY, of Missouri, said that he was appointed State delegate at such a late date that there was no time to collect statistics with regard to State work. There are county houses in all the counties, hospitals for the blind which are educational and industrial, and similar institutions for the deaf and dumb. There are three State hospitals for the insane, at St. Joseph, Fulton, and Nevada; one State Prison at Jefferson, with over eighteen hundred convicts, forty of whom are women. There is a United States Prison at Jefferson. At the State Prison the men are kept at work. Imprisonment is

no longer merely punitive, but is reformatory as well. There is in Missouri a Soldiers' Home, supported by a State fund and a Reform School at Boonville, with a large number of inmates. There are in the State many church and private charitable institutions.

Mr. GLENN.— Does Mr. Ely mean that there is a county house and farm in every county?

Mr. ELY.— Yes, I think so.

Gen. BRINKERHOFF.— What convicts does the United States Prison receive? Is it not a jail?

Mr. ELY.— Yes, but they call it the United States Prison.

Mr. BONSALL.— I am glad Missouri can make a favorable report. A few years ago that State was far behind in reformatory matters.

The report from the District of Columbia was made by Mrs. Sara A. Spencer.

The report from New Hampshire was made by Mr. F. B. Sanborn, as follows: —

Mr. SANBORN.— New Hampshire has no State Board of Charities. The powers of a lunacy commission have been conferred by law upon the State Board of Health, whose secretary, Dr. Watson, has undertaken to examine and report on the condition of the insane throughout the State. He has made his first report; and it will not be long before New Hampshire will as fully report the number, names, and condition of its insane as any of the States now do. The general situation there in regard to insanity is this: The State Asylum (for many years managed by the late Dr. J. P. Bancroft, formerly a member of our Conference, who has died within the last month) has about 400 inmates, the majority of whom are private patients. No other State institution in the East has proportionately so many private patients. It is one of the best establishments in the country, and is managed by the son of Dr. Bancroft. The other insane in New Hampshire — some 800 or 1,000 — are either in their own homes or in the town or county almshouses. New Hampshire originally had a town system for its poor; but more than thirty years ago it began to initiate a county system, and each of the ten counties now has a poor farm, and to these for the last twenty years a considerable number of the insane have been sent. All these come under the supervision of Dr. Watson, who, before the lunacy powers were conferred on his board, attended to the sanitary condition of these almshouses. That and the general condition of the insane there is better than ever before. In the town almshouses little has been done except to obtain such information as the law requires. The old New England custom of "town settlements," by which each poor person was supported by and in the town where his "settlement" was, has been given up; and the poor, sane and insane, are for the most part either

in the county almshouses, to the number of eight or ten hundred I suppose, or else they receive outdoor relief, which is given by the towns. With respect to the county prisoners of New Hampshire I know little. There is a single State Prison at Concord, and that at the present time is under good management. The State Reformatory at Manchester for boys and girls is in reasonably good condition.

Mr. Philip C. Garrett was asked to report for Pennsylvania, the written report not having been received in time to incorporate it in the report of the chairman.

Mr. GARRETT.— I do not think anything of importance has occurred in the way of legislation during the past year. The usual attacks have been made on the State Board of Charities, and there has been talk of abolishing it and creating a new department in the State government instead; but this has not taken shape, and will probably fail. The overcrowding of insane asylums continues. A movement which has been going on for removing all the insane from county to State institutions has progressed till some of the State institutions are excessively overcrowded. A movement is on foot for the erection of a building for the criminal insane, which may partly relieve this. The number of our charitable institutions is enormous. In Philadelphia alone there are between three and four hundred. The Williamson Industrial School for Boys is being erected. The Drexel Institute for industrial education of girls is in progress, with an endowment of a million and a half dollars. The House of Refuge is erecting a large cottage institution on the most modern methods. The school for the deaf and dumb is about to be removed outside the city. The old Pennsylvania hospital for the insane, familiarly known as "Kirkbride's," has also bought several hundred acres for the erection of a more modern institution. The Reformatory at Huntingdon has between three and four hundred inmates, but it does not relieve the other prisons. The Eastern penitentiary, which is supposed to be conducted on the separate system, has in the cells two and sometimes three inmates.

Mr. Ira Otterson was asked to report for New Jersey.

Mr. OTTERSON.— I have been in charge of the State Reform School for Boys for seven years, and I have yet to know of a single member of the State Board, as a member of that Board, visiting that institution. If our State Board is satisfied, I receive the compliment; but I would be better satisfied to know that they indorse our institution. During the last year I have had 387 boys. A year ago the legislature appropriated the sum of $8,000 for a new family building. During the last session we were favored by an appropriation of $7,000 for a new chapel, and an appropriation of $5,000 to increase our manual training department. There is also a Charity Aid Society in New

Jersey. Just how much they aid I cannot tell, although I have received a visit from two of the members. We have a State Prison at Trenton with over 800 convicts, and a State Industrial School for Girls with about 60 inmates. An appropriation bill has passed for new accommodations there. There is a State asylum for insane which is always overcrowded, and one also at Trenton in the same condition. There is a State School for Deaf-mutes at Trenton. They are allowed eight years' instruction and maintenance. There is a Home for Feeble-minded at Vineland, a private one for children, to which the State may send children for $320 a year. The State has no institution for feeble-minded children. There is a very good institution at Newark, taking the place of the House of Refuge, receiving both boys and girls, and doing good work. Everything in New Jersey is full.

Mrs. J. S. Spear was asked to report from California.

Mrs. SPEAR replied that she had no report prepared, but she hoped that California would report the formation of a State Board of Charities next year.

Mr. GARRETT.— When in Arizona, I visited the penitentiary at Yuma. The most desperate criminals were herded together there within the enclosure, without any attempt at reformation, without any industry. They had guards with rifles, and a gatling gun mounted on a tower, ready to destroy wholesale any who might attempt an insurrection.

The report from Tennessee was made by Judge R. R. Caldwell, of Nashville.

Mr. J. H. Mills was asked to make the report from North Carolina.

Mr. MILLS.— So far as our penitentiary is concerned, our State has taken pains to make it a paying institution. They glory in making money out of it. More money is made by railroad contracts than is required to support the prison. Our legislature has made a railroad commission, and we now have some hope of establishing a reformatory. Some people may not be able to see the relation between a railroad commission and a reform school for boys. A large number of capitalists from different parts of the country come down and say to our people, We will build you a railroad from X to Y if you will furnish so many cross-ties and so many convicts. And, when I go before the legislature and try to convince the committee that we ought to have a reformatory for boys, they say: Why, we have a chance to let out fifteen hundred convicts, and we have not but twelve hundred. If you take out the boys, we shall be still worse off than we are. We cannot spare these convicts to start a reformatory. But, if we establish a railroad commission, these capitalists will be afraid to build railroads for the State. So I think there is going to be a chance for some

of those boys. One more orphan house is being started in the State. We have one difficulty in regard to feeble-minded children. Certain liberal-minded gentlemen have offered a good tract of land for the purpose, and money to start a school for feeble-minded children. This offer was made more than six months ago, but those of us who have been interested in it have not been able to find any one to run it. We are moving on tolerably well with our work. We have not much to brag of, and we have some things to be ashamed of; but I think we shall get the reformatory, and I am sure the time will come when the penitentiary will cease to pay.

Mr. APPEL asked that Mrs. Jacobs might be asked to speak of the work in Colorado.

Mrs. JACOBS.— In Colorado we are trying to avoid all the pitfalls of the older States. We want to begin in the right direction, and we are going slowly. In our penitentiary we have 193 convicts, of whom but 2 are women. We are not proud of that, because we feel keenly that misdirected maternity had more to do with placing those boys in the penitentiary than we can have any conception of. It is only by commencing with the very young and directing them in industrial habits and pursuits, by training the girls to become true, good women, who know what womanhood and maternity are, that we can prevent reformatories and penitentiaries. We have established our State Board of Charities after two years of hard work; and I wish to add my testimony to the great good this Conference has been to us in Colorado in this direction. We came home from the California meeting brimful of interest. We could hardly contain ourselves. We went into every church in the city, and spoke of what we saw and heard. We told them of the great good the kindergarten had done, and we have started a free kindergarten association in Denver. We have now ten kindergartens with over twelve hundred children in our care; and, if you know what that means,— to take twelve hundred waifs from the homes of degradation, and place them in sunny rooms, and bring about them an environment of goodness and purity and love, with pure, good teachers,— you will see that that must work upon the homes and bring better influences into them and into the community. We have started our Associated Charities on a better basis. We have now nineteen societies united with us. We have a State Board of Control to establish an industrial home for girls, but the State neglected to give us an appropriation for it. During the last month we put fourteen young girls under eighteen years of age into the house of the Good Shepherd. Our laws for children are defective. We hope to improve them; and we hope some time to say that every child has its due amount of protection and its chance to lead a right life in the world, despite incapable and wretched parents.

General BRINKERHOFF said that he wished to say a word with reference to the State Board of Ohio, to supplement the report from that

State. He wanted to say a good word for the legislature, which had been very considerate. It does not act upon subjects of charities without sending to the Board and asking its advice. Since the report for Ohio was written, action has been had upon a very important bit of legislation. A bill has been passed, which is now a law, which provides that in every jail in the State of Ohio in which the construction will permit — and about half will permit — there shall be absolute separation of prisoners, so that there shall be no communication between them. In addition, there is a paragraph which will secure the enforcement of that law; and that is that the Courts of Common Pleas, which have always had the making of the laws to govern jails, are made directors, and it is made mandatory on them to see that this law is enforced. Nine hundred and ninety-nine out of every thousand jails in this country are practically the jails that John Howard found a hundred years ago in England. Another important bit of legislation in Ohio is that the name of the intermediate penitentiary has been changed to the Ohio Reformatory.

Mr. OTTERSON.— Two years ago I was instrumental in having such a law passed in regard to having children taken from jails. I hope Ohio will be more successful in having it put in force than we have been.

Gen. BRINKERHOFF.— You cannot do it unless you have it mandatory and a penalty attached to it.

Miss Mary E. Richmond, general secretary Charity Organization Society, Baltimore, was asked to speak.

Miss RICHMOND.— A very important part of my work is to read reports. I have noticed that one favorite remark is to say that "another year has rolled around." Another is that they "have reason to be profoundly thankful, for never in the history of the institution has there been such a successful year," etc. The reports to-day have been eminently practical; and yet I feel forced to say, in the language of the reports which I criticise, that never in the history of our State have we had such a successful year. The very thing I despised I do myself. We, too, have reason for gratitude that the Conference of Charities and Correction met in Baltimore last May. Whenever anything encouraging has appeared since then, we have known where it came from. Many of the old charities have awakened, and I have noticed that at their meetings they talk about the "Jukes" and the "Tribe of Ishmael." The Poor Association has had a great spurt from the last Conference. The establishment of new charities is on a better basis, on the line of prevention rather than of alleviation. The co-operative workers have started a vacation home for working-girls. The working-women and women of leisure work together on a common basis. There has been established a home for homeless women with small babies. The idea has been heretofore to take the baby away almost as soon as it was born. The mother has had no

chance to become attached to it, nor has the baby had a chance to become a reformatory influence to her. This home takes them from the hospital, keeps them long enough to re-establish the mother's health, and teaches her cooking, sewing, and housework. Then a home is found in the country for both mother and baby. There is a new day nursery. Another project for working-women is so far purely experimental. We have noticed that many working-women have broken down from running sewing machines by foot-power. We have started a room full of sewing machines run by electricity, and rent them to women who have been broken down and cannot run machines by foot-power. We have placed over this room a young woman of great intelligence who will do her best to supervise and improve the work. As higher education and higher charity are so closely allied, it may be in place to refer to the fact that the women of this country have raised money for the medical education of women; and we believe that in Baltimore, in connection with the Johns Hopkins University, there will be established in 1892 a medical school with equal opportunities for women and for men.

Adjourned at 12 M.

THIRD SESSION.

Thursday night, May 14.

The Conference was called to order, after music, at eight o'clock, the President in the chair.

The subject for the evening was the report of the Committee on Public Outdoor Relief, Mrs. C. R. Lowell, chairman. A telegram was read from Mrs. Lowell, saying that sickness would prevent her attendance. The President, therefore, asked Mr. L. L. Barbour to read the report in Mrs. Lowell's place.

A paper, "Charity: How is its Work best done?" was read by Rt. Rev. Francis S. Chatard, Bishop of Vincennes (page 50), who prefaced it by a hearty welcome to the Conference to Indiana.

The report of the committee was then read by Mr. Barbour: —

Report of Committee on Public Outdoor Relief.— The plan adopted by your committee for the allotment of the time allowed to them to-day was the following: —

1. The presentation of the arguments in favor of Public Outdoor Relief, in a paper of twenty-five minutes' length.

2. The presentation of the arguments against Public Outdoor Relief, in a paper of the same length.

3. General discussion of the arguments presented.

The chairman, in order that both sides might be fairly presented, wrote immediately upon receiving the names of the committee, asking each member upon which side of the subject he wished to write, and, finding that the preponderance of numbers was on the negative side, made every effort to obtain outside papers in the affirmative; but the result was not encouraging, only four papers, or letters, having been received on that side, while there were seven on the other. The two papers consequently will be of unequal length. The chairman has thought best to allow the arguments of the writers to appear in their own words, and even to allow the same arguments to be repeated by different writers, as cumulative evidence should have its weight.

The arguments in favor of Public Outdoor Relief are submitted by Mrs. M. J. Lilly, Portland, Me.; Mr. C. H. Baker, Portland, Me.; Mr. J. Q. Adams, Columbus, Wis.; Mr. I. P. Wright, St. Paul, Minn.

The arguments against Public Outdoor Relief are submitted by Mrs. James R. Codman, Brookline, Mass.; Dr. H. C. Taylor, Brocton, N.Y.; Mr. Robert G. McGonnigle, Pittsburg, Penn.; Mr. J. Nevin Hill, Sunbury, Penn.; Mr. Levi L. Barbour and Mr. H. C. Henderson, Detroit, Mich.; Mr. E. O. Holden, Baraboo, Wis.

The first series was read by Rev. L. G. Powers, of Minnesota (pages 28–36), the second by Mr. H. S. Shurtleff, of Massachusetts (pages 36–49).

DISCUSSION.

The discussion was opened by Mr. C. D. Kellogg, secretary of the Charity Organization Society, New York.

Mr. KELLOGG.— Outdoor public relief does destroy the charity of a community thus: by substituting an impersonal mechanism, void of all moral elements, for the sympathetic impulses of family and neighborhood. This is proved by the experience of Dr. Chalmers. On the ground that public poor relief corrupted all communities alike, whether rural or urban, he claimed that Glasgow, where such relief prevailed, teeming as it was with discontent and pauperism, could be rendered as free from both as Fifeshire, where there was none, and that Fifeshire would grow as offensive by the pressure of both under public relief as Glasgow; and his oft-quoted success in the administration of St. John's Parish substantiated his claim. The amelioration of the poor increased in arithmetical proportion to the reduction of poor relief, under his rule, in Glasgow; and later, when poor relief was introduced again into Fifeshire, pauperism and distress increased,

and the neighborly hospitalities, manifested by a bunk and a pot of oatmeal in every cot for the passing wayfarer, were abolished.

And this has proved true all over Great Britain, so that a comparison of town and country will show that there is as much pauperism in the country as in the city. It shows that official relief corrupts every community alike; for the agricultural counties in the south of England make as bad, if not a worse, exhibit than the manufacturing counties of the north.

On the other hand, poor Ireland hates the poor laws; and the peasantry will not use the workhouse nor parochial relief but as a last resort. Hence more is done there in a neighborly way, and the court records are singularly free from criminal cases (other than agrarian ones) for the crimes which are the usual accompaniments of the pauper life, such as theft, drunkenness, and vagrancy. The *Century* for (I think) last January has an article on "Famine Times in Ireland," by Octave Thanet, which shows how official relief broke down in 1846–47, and correspondingly how the best relief work was neighborly.

We can certainly afford to learn by such experiences as these.

Rural pauperism is not so deep and difficult to eradicate in the United States as that of the city; but is it not because country communities are not profusely equipped with societies, parish visitors, and relief agents, and therefore the play of natural sympathies is much more active and much more depended on? Again, we can learn from older lands. An authority says, "The majority of the indigent who receive public relief in France are foreigners," — that is, dislodged or dislocated persons, whose social relations are cut off. The native neighbors take care of each other, as a rule. As France contains but few foreigners in proportion to the population, the inference is overwhelming.

An old Holland practice was that of placing paupers in colonies on waste lands, and making them earn their own subsistence. Thus natural ties of neighborhood and of mutual industry were gradually restored, and the social relations of the Dutch were notably good.

These instances (and others might be quoted) serve to illustrate the principle that pauperism will largely disappear from normal social conditions of family and neighborhood if these are not interfered with and perverted by artificial and impersonal agencies. To quote Dr. Chalmers again (and I like to quote him, for we have had no equal student of the question since his day), he always strove to show that the native impulses of civilized communities, if left to themselves, would tenderly provide for all the misery of every community, and dissipate it as fast as it arose.

These arguments go to prove that public relief does destroy the charity of a community, and equally how and why it does so.

Mr. P. W. Ayres, General Secretary Associated Charities, Cincinnati.— The theoretical part of this subject has been so well presented that I have thought it best to give one or two practical instances

which have occurred in our work in Cincinnati. The first is that of a thrifty wife with two children, who lived separate from her husband in order to get the city relief. She was also the recipient of church relief; and, when the two combined were not sufficient to maintain her according to the standard of her ideal, her husband kindly came to her assistance. Another instance is a mother whose idiot daughter is nineteen years old. They moved from one district of the city to another to get the city relief, because they were acquainted with the overseer in that district, and they thought they would get more relief from him. They were brought to our notice. The mother was asked to send the daughter to the infirmary, where she would be safe and cared for, and the mother left free to earn something for herself. Just at this stage a lady missionary from one of the churches came to the rescue, and represented the sufferings of the mother and daughter in such a way that the church assisted them till the time for the overseer to begin. But the daughter was a danger to herself and to the community, and finally the mother put her into the infirmary. From our records in Cincinnati we found at one time thirty-five aged persons living separate from their children, in order to get city relief. We found one aged man, unable to care for himself, who went to live, not with any of his five other children, but with a widowed daughter with two children, because they together could make a proper impression on the overseer. Our outdoor relief includes district physicians: we have twenty-five. They are political offices, and are often changed. Last year they were changed three times within six months. To-day Mrs. Jones, whose baby is sick, goes to physician A., who is a homœopathist and a Republican, who prescribes for the child. To-morrow there is a change, and she must employ physician B., who is a Democrat and an allopathist; and he prescribes. On the third day the baby dies, and is buried by outdoor relief. My work was for a year and a half in Brooklyn, and has now been a year and a half in Cincinnati. In Brooklyn we have no outdoor relief, no city physician. In Cincinnati we have both. The attitude of the poor toward relief in the two cities is different. Brooklyn is immensely larger than Cincinnati; but Cincinnati has a more pauperized population, and the feeling toward relief societies, churches, and friendly visitations is radically different. In addition to the large amount given in outdoor relief, a large sum is expended through the city physicians and for drugs.

Rev. CHARLES G. TRUSDELL, Superintendent Relief and Aid Society, Chicago.— One swallow does not make a summer, nor does one story of a dead-beat prove anything that is in discussion. I can give a thousand stories on both sides if you want them. There has been an exhaustive discussion of the whole question, and both sides have made out the case conclusively to those who were previously of that opinion. There can be, however, but one opinion on the subject of administering outdoor relief by weak and unscrupulous politicians. Still, I think there are honest men; and they might be induced to lend their influence in the direction of a proper administration of relief.

I wish to say, with reference to the point raised by Bishop Chatard, that there are a great number of families in a community doing the best they can at self-support. They are not paupers; but, when sickness overtakes them, they are reduced to the lowest possible point or they may perish. The St. Vincent de Paul Society, which is organized in every Catholic parish, does a great deal of good helping families in their homes. There is a great deal done by private charity. This thing of bringing the benefactor and the friendly visitor near to those who are to be assisted is good in its way, but kind friends and neighbors are not always plenty when a man is in distress.

There are not many ladies who are ready to give all their substance to relieve the necessities of the poor. Nor are there many business men who can do this. Mr. Armour, the millionnaire, who is well known for his great philanthropies, has to employ a man to stand between him and the applicants for relief. He cannot turn his office into a relief society. We cannot have any hard and fast rules about this matter. It strikes me we have had a great deal more philosophy than religion in this discussion.

A letter from Baron von Reichenstein, vice-president of the German Society of Charities, Baden, was read by Mr. John M. Glenn. In the opinion of Baron von Reichenstein, outdoor relief should be limited to those cases that cannot otherwise be assisted.

Mr. Samuel G. Smith, Minneapolis.—It is certainly true that in some towns there is political corruption in connection with the giving of outdoor relief; but the argument here is against political management, not against outdoor relief. No city can get along without an organization of charities. The only question is whether relief shall be public or private. The only way that some people ever find out that there are any poor unfortunates is when they come to pay their taxes. Political corruption does not interfere with the administration of outdoor relief in St. Paul. It is in the hands of a board of control that is not political. There is no system of relief, public or private, that is good, if not wisely administered. Poverty in the rural districts is due to the fact that the frontiersmen are not building for themselves; but they bear the burdens of taxation, while non-resident land-owners enjoy the profits.

Probably more harm is done from indiscriminate private charity than from any other way of giving. We must not only have system, but we must have science. It is a matter of administration. Put in a good, sensible man anywhere, and he will do good work. Put in a fool anywhere, and he will do mischief.

Mr. N. S. Rosenau.—The remark was made in one of the early papers in favor of public outdoor relief that it was not the rich who were charitable, but the middle class. As an American, I do not recognize any classes in America. I am the secretary of a Charity Organization Society, and I have kept my eyes open. I have seen

the subscription lists of this country, and I want to say here that we have no right to decry the rich for their lack of charity. Need I call your attention to such women as Mrs. Shaw in Boston, to Mrs. Stanford of California, and to the hundreds of others who give of their wealth so lavishly that we cannot keep track of it, for the benefit of the poor? Look at the contributions which come from the East whenever there is a calamity in the West. There are rich men who do not recognize their obligations to society. There are poor men who do not recognize their obligations to society. But the wealth of this country goes out more into the hands of the distressed than you or I have any idea of. I do not forget how a man supposed to be the meanest man in Buffalo left $150,000 to a public institution,— the largest gift that had ever been made there by a local man for such a movement. We ought to remember that the wealthy have greater calls made upon them than the middle class, and it is because they are so often obliged to refuse that we call them stingy. I do not believe that we have a right to force a man to support his next-door neighbor, who has been brought into a bad strait almost invariably through his own wrong-doing. If we want to see what public outdoor relief can do, we have only to read the story of the Jukes family, which cost the State of New York, rich, middle class, and poor, something like a million and a quarter of dollars.

The PRESIDENT.— The discussion will close here. We do not *settle* questions in this Conference. We leave them open, and every one can go away and study them for himself.

After the singing of a hymn, the benediction was pronounced by Bishop Gillespie, and the Conference adjourned at 10 P.M.

FOURTH SESSION.

Friday morning, May 15.

The Conference was called to order at 9.30 A.M., the President in the chair. Prayer was offered by Rev. J. A. Rondthaler, D.D.

On motion of F. B. Sanborn, it was voted that the Executive Committee of the Conference obtain and print the portraits of all the Presidents that have not been printed in the Proceedings.

A letter from the president of the Société Internationale pour l'Etude des Questions d'Assistance was read by Mr. Alexander Johnson.

A letter from Rabbi Rülf, of Memel, Germany, was read by Mrs. Barrows.

On motion of Dr. C. S. Hoyt, it was voted that the President should acknowledge the letters received from England, France, Germany, and Saxony, and convey to the writers the assurance of the

interest and pleasure they had created in the Conference, and that he should further express the hope that these gentlemen may be present at the International Conference in Chicago, in 1893.

Mr. J. S. Appel, of Colorado, read letters and telegrams of invitation to the Conference to hold the meeting of 1892 in the city of Denver, and moved that these invitations might be referred to the Committee on Time and Place. They were so referred. The invitations were signed by the officers of the Charity Organization Society, the Governor of the State, the Mayor of Denver, president Chamber of Commerce, president Real Estate Exchange, president Manufacturing Exchange, president Board County Commissioners, president Board of Supervisors, president Trade Assembly, president State Board of Charities, Board of Aldermen, and many others.

The subject for the day was then taken up, the report of the Committee on the Care and Treatment of the Insane. Bishop Gillespie was called to the chair; and Dr. W. B. Fletcher, chairman of the committee, took charge of presenting the report and guiding the discussion.

A letter from Dr. Stephen Smith, of New York, was read by Mr. McCulloch.

After a brief introduction by Dr. Fletcher, a paper on "The Commitment and Detention of the Insane" was read by Dr. Albert R. Moulton, of Boston (page 68).

A paper on "Voluntary Committal of the Insane" was read by Dr. Richard Dewey, of Kankakee (page 71).

A paper on "The Care and Treatment of the Insane" was read by Dr. W. B. Fletcher (page 62).

DISCUSSION ON CARE OF THE INSANE.

Dr. ROGERS, of New York, said that for forty years he had been actively engaged in the care of the insane. He did not feel sure that voluntary commitment of the insane was advisable in an organized insane asylum. Admission for a day or for seven days would be detrimental to those who have to remain a longer time. If individuals who come voluntarily are to be received, it should be to retreats independent of asylums; and then, if they are adjudged insane, they may be regularly committed.

Rabbi LEUCHT, of New Orleans, repeated his question as to the best disposition of persons arrested insane in the streets. Such persons, when poor, are sent to the workhouse in New Orleans. The workhouse is an American misnomer, like the word "coffee-house."

In a coffee-house one can find anything but coffee, and in a workhouse they do everything in the wide world but work. The persons to whom these insane are committed have no conception how to treat them. They are cruel through ignorance. What do other cities do with insane people arrested on the street?

Dr. MOULTON replied that in Massachusetts the State hospitals are so near to Boston that a patient who is committed to a State hospital can be delivered there within an hour from the time of leaving Boston. The commitment laws are such that there is no occasion for a man to be kept in custody more than twenty-four hours in a large city, and probably not even that. The emergency laws allow the disposition of cases in such a way as to prevent their detention in jails or lock-ups for any length of time. A man arrested in Boston in the evening may be taken to the Tombs and detained there till morning, when the examining physician sees him; and he would be committed that afternoon to one of the hospitals. The city of New Orleans should have a small lunatic hospital for the care and treatment of patients belonging to the city. Boston has such a hospital in the city. Louisiana should have an emergency commitment law. Dr. Moulton said he was entirely opposed to the treatment of the insane in workhouses or almshouses.

On motion, it was voted to extend the morning session to 12.30 P.M.

A paper on "State and County Care for the Chronic Insane" was read by Hon. Oscar Craig (page 85).

A paper on the same subject was read by H. H. Giles, of Wisconsin (page 78).

The discussion was then resumed.

Mr. SANBORN.— I wish to call attention to the fact that the Wisconsin system is really one of State care. The essential point is that the State, through intelligent representatives, shall exercise supervision, taking notice of every insane person within its limits. The provisions made by the New York law (hastily and recklessly, as I think) have been criticised and applauded in the newspapers. There is a fable that the elephant, that intelligent animal of whom we hear so many fables, was walking once through a farm-yard, and set his foot on a hen which had just hatched out a brood of chickens. Being a philanthropist, and, seeing what he had done, he turned round to the chickens and said, "Unfortunately, I have killed your mother; but I will be a mother to you." And so he sat down on the whole brood. For the moral, read the New York State care law. I do not speak without some experience with the insane; and I venture to assert unhesitatingly that the system which has just been inaugurated in New York, instead of alleviating the condition of the insane for the next five years, will seriously injure their present condition. I would call the attention of Mr. Craig to the fact that, by excluding

the two counties of Kings and New York from the provisions of this law, practically one-half the insane of his State do not come under the new system at all. On the contrary, they are managed under a method of county care and control that produces (as I am informed, and to some extent have witnessed from visitation) results in the treatment of the insane inferior to the excellent results in many county and town almshouses which I have visited. Instead of alleviating the condition of the insane in New York, this legislation will in many cases enhance a pernicious custom which has existed ever since the passage of the Willard Asylum Act so long ago,—the practice of drawing the insane farther and farther from their home and friends, and congregating them in large asylums, such as twenty years ago would have been deemed impossible in America. The Willard Asylum has now over two thousand patients, Flatbush has above a thousand, and the other hospitals are fast increasing their numbers. Binghamton will soon have fifteen hundred or two thousand. The result of all this is to draw the insane poor away from connection and communication with everybody except public officials, and that is a very injurious circumstance in the care of the insane. The special virtue of the Wisconsin system is that it does not remove the insane, poor or rich, from the neighborhood of their families. By establishing an asylum in each county, the insane are brought within easy reach of their friends. Without by any means assenting to the observations made last night, in the debate on outdoor relief, on the heartlessness of public officials, it must be evident that a great body of public officials in a great State like New York cannot, and will not, from the nature of things, bestow on the insane the care, affection, and attention that their own friends could give, and in many instances do give, if the chance is allowed them.

Dr. MOULTON.— I would like to ask a few questions of Mr. Giles. How many nurses or attendants are employed in your county asylums?

Mr. GILES.— It differs in different asylums, depending somewhat on the character of the patients, and often on their nationality.

Dr. MOULTON.— What would be the average?

Mr. GILES.— Four regular attendants for one hundred patients.

Dr. MOULTON.— What is done for the amusement of the patients?

Mr. GILES.— They read and sing and dance, and once a week have a literary society.

Dr. MOULTON.— Is that universal?

Mr. GILES.— Not universal.

Mr. GARRETT.— I was impressed with the fact that both papers advocated State care. I have listened with the profoundest interest to these papers, and it seems to me there is a great deal of wisdom in them, especially in that of Dr. Fletcher, which seems to me one of the most intelligent papers I ever heard on this subject. I wish to lay emphasis on one point that he referred to, while I would also like to commend his recognition of the fact, which superintendents are

unapt to recognize, that there are many cases which are better treated in the home than in the institution. It is true, as he says, that there is inadequate medical attendance at all the hospitals. I doubt whether it is proper that there should be more than fifty patients to one medical attendant. This would require in an asylum with two thousand patients, such as have been referred to, forty physicians; and we usually have not more than half a dozen. I believe there must be a radical remedy for this serious defect.

But the one point to which I wish particularly to refer is the development of the pathological side of this medico-legal question as compared with the legal side. Until insanity is recognized, not as *a disease*, as it is so often called, but as the *result* of physical disease, we shall never come to the most perfect treatment of it. I apprehend that it will be found that every case of insanity has a physical basis, that in every case it should be studied from a pathological point of view. The greatest injustice is done to cases of insanity when they are dragged before a legal tribunal and made the subject of legal discussion in a court which deals with crime. We must remember the danger of treating the insane as criminals. There is the greatest injustice in so treating them. There are many cases of well-developed insanity where there is the most intense recognition of their condition on the part of the patients themselves and the most acute sensibility. To have such persons taken before a court for trial seems a very serious wrong. I wish in future there might be a greater recognition of this fact that insanity is to be regarded and treated from a pathological point of view.

Mr. CHARLES H. REEVE, of Indiana, said it was necessary to look at the facts of experience and experiment, to arrive at the best method of caring for the insane. One system is diametrically opposed to the other: one advocates a general hospital system, the other county care. Is it not a fact that, so far as experience has gone in Wisconsin, the system there has proved most beneficial in its results? If that be the fact, why not adopt it? There has been experience enough in the ordinary asylum. Millions have been spent there, from twelve hundred to four thousand dollars per capita, for accommodations.

General BRINKERHOFF, of Ohio, thought that twice as much could be done for the insane if they came under proper care sooner. A man's usefulness for life is often destroyed, even if he be cured, from the fact that he has been in an insane asylum. He is always regarded as an insane man and as good for nothing. He is not trusted as he was before. The paper of Dr. Dewey's is one of the most important ever brought before the Conference. The question is how to get a hospital in which these people can be received and treated. If they are taken, as he proposes, by voluntary commitment in insane hospitals, that is better than it is now. But still they are in a State hospital, and the brand is put upon them. Persons should be allowed to voluntarily commit themselves to an institution in which they can be

treated for nervous diseases. That is a problem to be solved. Many superintendents are considering this. They admit its great value; but how do it? The people of Ohio do not believe in county care of the insane. They would not consider it for an instant. Ohio is opposed to the Wisconsin system. It will not do for Ohio.

Mr. A. E. ELMORE.— There are a dozen gentlemen here who have been to Wisconsin and seen this system in operation; and I hope some of them will say a word for it here, as they have to me in private conversation. The medical gentlemen — and I have great respect for them, they do the best they can — are overworked in the State hospitals. My friend Mr. Craig says that each patient should be examined every day. But, when I ask the medical superintendent how often and how long he labors at his vocation in examining these patients, he says he examines them semi-daily. But when that is simmered down, and he examines three hundred patients in three hours, and there are only one hundred and eighty minutes in three hours, and they tell me that they know all about their patients,— examining them at the rate of about two a minute,— then I say it is all nonsense. The acute insane need attention every day. The chronic do not. They need no more medicine than so many kittens, not a bit. In all these large institutions they have to employ a large number of people. In one of the Wisconsin hospitals, where they have six hundred patients, they had, not long ago, one hundred and sixty-two employees of all kinds on the pay-roll. I said to the superintendent, "Doctor, how many of your employees are engaged in this business because they have a heart to do something for humanity?" "Oh, a good many," he replied. "A good many is vague," I said. "Are there *five* persons in this institution who came here because they wanted to do something for these poor fellows, or did they come because they could get more money for less work than they could get elsewhere?" "Oh, yes," he said. "Name them." "That would be invidious." "You cannot do it: there is not one that comes for humanity's sake." There are many that are brutal on occasions, and the superintendent does not know it and cannot know it. A kinder-hearted man than Dr. Dewey does not live; but what does he know about his hundreds of subordinates? And when one does a mean thing, as they do every day, he cannot know anything about it. One will not tell of another. You cannot get the truth out of them; and there is no way, when brutality is practised, to know anything about it. We have in our county insane asylums thirteen hundred patients who have been in State institutions, and not one of them has ever said, "I want to go back to those institutions." And that speaks volumes,— more than I could say in an hour.

Mr. J. S. APPEL.— Take a State like Colorado, with a scattered population, how could institutions be introduced there under such a system?

Mr. GILES.— Start where you are.

The following Committee on Organization was announced : —

Philip C. Garrett, chairman, Pennsylvania; Roeliff Brinkerhoff, Ohio; F. B. Sanborn, Massachusetts; Andrew E. Elmore, Wisconsin; Fred H. Wines, Illinois; W. P. Letchworth, New York; H. H. Giles, Wisconsin; Dr. Charles H. Hoyt, New York; Rt. Rev. George D. Gillespie, Michigan; H. S. Shurtleff, Massachusetts; Alexander Johnson, Indiana; L. C. Storrs, Michigan; H. H. Hart, Minnesota; John G. Doren, Ohio; A. O. Wright, Wisconsin; A. L. Welsh, Colorado; Mrs. J. S. Spear, Jr., California; George H. Knight, Connecticut; A. G. Warner, Washington, D.C.; Mrs. M. A. T. Clark, Delaware; Dr. Jennie McCowen, Iowa; Rabbi J. L. Leucht, Louisiana; John M. Glenn, Maryland; John W. Willis, Minnesota; Rabbi H. Berkowitz, Missouri; J. H. Mills, North Carolina; Ira Otterson, New Jersey; Homer Folks, Pennsylvania; James H. Nutting, Rhode Island; Judge R. R. Caldwell, Tennessee.

At 12.30 the morning session closed by singing "The Light of Truth is breaking."

FIFTH SESSION.

Friday night, May 15.

The Conference was called to order at 8 P.M. by the President. The order for the evening was the report of the Committee on the Child Problem in Cities, Mr. John H. Finley, secretary of the New York Charities Aid Association, chairman. A paper was read by Mr. Finley on "The Child Problem in Cities" (page 124).

A paper on "The Care of Delinquent Children" was read by Mr. Homer C. Folks (page 136).

DISCUSSION ON THE CHILD PROBLEM IN CITIES.

Mr. J. H. MILLS said it seemed as though the speakers looked forward to a time when poverty should be entirely removed from the earth. The Master said that the poor should never cease from off the face of the earth. Those who were prosperous and able to help the poor and needy were taught to do so. The rich and the poor meet together, and the Lord is the Maker of them all. We must come to that point, said he, before we can settle all these problems. What is the difficulty about the children? We must make every school, from the primary to the high, a moral school. Do we do that? Most of our illustrations are taken from New York and Pennsylvania. Go to the New York public schools. When a boy becomes too bad and they cannot manage him, they drop him into the street. A poor

little girl down in North Carolina was brought to me. She had no brother, no father, and no mother. I did not send her off and put her in some other family. I determined that I would make the most of that girl myself, that I would try my best to make a useful woman of her. I followed her up with kindness, and gave her training; and to-day she is the wife of a prominent man in New York, not only doing well herself, but doing well for others. Another child I took in the same way, and trained her; and she is now the wife of a merchant in Pennsylvania. I say, if I can take poor little girls down in North Carolina, and prepare them for usefulness in New York and Philadelphia, why can't my esteemed brothers take those poor children in the North and do the same thing? I believe the trouble is that we are wrong in our schools. Look at the school readers,— every one filled with pictures of cats and dogs and calves and hens and things of that kind. How in the world are they going to learn morality or religion out of such material as that? I wish, instead of sending children out West or almost out of the world, people would keep them at home, and train them as they ought to be, and make day schools and Sunday-schools moral and reformatory where they are. You talk about putting children where there are no other children. One of the most difficult places where you can put a boy is in a family where there are no other children. A man who has had no experience and observation thinks that is a splendid place. But I tell you a boy put into a family without any sister, and nobody to love or to love him, has a hard time in this world. People sometimes come to me, and say they want a girl that has no "attachments," who is attached to nobody. I say to them: You are crazy. A girl that does not love anybody is not fit to live with anybody: she is not human. She must love somebody, to be a good girl. The same is true of a boy, if he is to grow up a good man. With us the plan is to keep the boys and girls till they are sixteen, treating them just as well as we can, and training them as well as we can, to prepare them for the duties that may lie before them, and then let them go out and take their chances. People sometimes want to take these children and work them ten or fifteen years for victuals and clothes, but we do not let them go in that way. I have found that children adopted out do not average as well as those who go out and work for wages. In one orphan school they are kept till they are eighteen; and the superintendent thinks the longer he keeps them, the better men and women he makes of them.

Mrs. E. A. Blaker, Indianapolis.— Environment has much to do with the solution of the problem, "What shall be done for neglected and delinquent children?" If they could be surrounded from birth with wholesome influences, there would not be the thousands of dwarfed, perverted, and wrong developments in child life that we now meet. The first step to be taken lies in the direction of the formation of right habits of living. The time to begin,— earliest infancy. The place,— the free kindergarten, its auxiliaries and outgrowths.

In connection with this, the home. The *true* kindergarten takes the child when his mind is capable of being most easily impressed and guided into the right channels. It satisfies his desire for activity by giving him plays such as his childish impulses demand,— plays that mean more than simply keeping him busy, plays that lead to industry, that promote a healthy physical, moral, and mental condition. The kindergarten gives the child an interest in work. It instils ideas of self-dependence. It teaches him to respect the rights of others, to perform *his* duties, and to be obedient to law. It is the *best* preparation for school and for the prevention of unfavorable tendencies. Every genuine kindergartner must possess the motherly instincts, that she may give to the children under her care that love and sympathy that are the right of childhood and which foster in each child proper feelings and actions. The kindergarten looks to the present happiness and to the future usefulness of each of its pupils. To accomplish these two aims, we must labor as earnestly in the home as in the kindergarten. The former is the starting-point of all civilization; and, in the effort to elevate humanity, we should endeavor to strengthen and purify, if possible, the home life. To do this, regular and systematic visiting must be done by persons who are especially prepared for the work. The visitor should be competent to give the right counsel and to win the confidence and respect of the parents. To more closely connect the kindergarten and the home-interests, mothers' meetings should be inaugurated, the object of these gatherings being to give talks on the care of children, household duties, and the responsibility of motherhood. There should also be entertainments for both parents, and these should be held at stated intervals in the kindergarten district. These entertainments should be of a musical, literary, and instructive character. They should awaken new and better thoughts, and be incentives to truer ideals of life. The uplifting of the home, however, cannot be a theoretical work alone; and for this reason schools for practical housework and with lessons in house economy and thrift must be established. This leads us to the founding of the kitchen garden, the domestic training, and sloyd schools. This series of work is immediately twofold in its purpose: first, to make industrious sons and daughters and clean, healthy, and inviting though humble homes; second, to prepare the girls and boys for future homes and life-work. The beginning efforts of charity labor should be to make parents feel that they are responsible for the right rearing of their children; the second, to provide schools for the proper instruction of these children, should the State not offer the necessary infant training. Prevention should be the first step considered in charitable work. The parents must be made to feel that they, or their children are not, and ought not to be, the wards of the State, county, or city, to be fed, housed, and clothed without labor. They must be taught that society does not owe them a living unless they are willing to work for it. The children must be trained to be industrious, and to prepare for taking care

of themselves in the future and to provide for those who are dependent upon them. If the home cannot be made to help in forming these right habits in the children, and the parents fail in their duty, then the children must be removed from these surroundings by the State, county, or city, and placed in new homes, and as far as possible in working families. Here they will have the constant example of earning the necessities of life, and be made to feel that work brings happiness and comfort.

Dr. SARAH M. CRAWFORD, Boston.—I have been requested to say a few words in favor of salaried women visitors in the administration of public and private charities. The subject of the State care of destitute infants under the Massachusetts system is not new to this Conference. It was fully explained by Mr. H. S. Shurtleff, of Massachusetts, in a paper read at the sixteenth annual meeting, held in San Francisco, Cal., in 1889. As medical visitor in the Department of Outdoor Poor, under the authority of the State Board of Lunacy and Charity of Massachusetts, I have had many opportunities of estimating the necessity there is for such service as only women can render to the unfortunate and suffering poor. My own line of work has taken me among the foundling and destitute babies of the State; that is, children under three years of age. A young baby is scarcely more than a bundle of possibilities, and for the first few months of its life requires more than it will at any other period; proper food, good air, sunlight, and, most of all, tender, intelligent nursing and "mothering," to give it a good start toward proper development. I have found how absolutely indispensable is the patient, painstaking, untiring watchfulness required by each individual baby, and know that this can only be given by a woman whose experience and training have fitted her for this work. A man, however skilful, tender, and thoughtful he may be, has not the same knowledge as a woman of the wants and difficulties which surround early childhood. Most women possess this knowledge intuitively, in consequence of inherited aptitude or from early training in domestic duties. In every womanly woman is implanted a love of children which fits her to perform the office of mother and protector to every helpless, neglected, dependent baby. The official person who comes in immediate contact with a baby should be a woman, for there is no more helpless being alive than the average man with a deserted baby on his hands. He is utterly bewildered, and eager to grasp the first straw that may help him out of his difficulty; and, where a baby is concerned, the first straw is pretty sure to be a woman. On the other hand, a woman visitor seeks no outside aid. At the mere sight of a baby she is instantly all mother, especially if she has had children of her own. The remembrance of their past needs is her best guide for comforting this motherless morsel of helplessness. I do not mean to say anything in disparagement of men. On the contrary, I know and appreciate the high value of their services; and I believe that our charities can be best administered where there is the united effort of men and

women. A woman's sympathies and enthusiasm may at times carry her too far, and then it is that a man's judicial qualities of mind prove most valuable. It seems to me that the way to reach the highest ideal in the care of one of these little waifs is to approach as nearly as possible to the methods and influences of judicious family life. When the question comes, What shall be done with a child so that it may be surrounded with these influences which shall train it into righteous ways, and make of it a supporter of its foster parent, the State? when, in short, a home is to be found for it,— who is a better judge of the requirements of both child and home than a woman? We have in Massachusetts a band of voluntary visitors, women who render most excellent service to the State by visiting its minor wards over three years of age, the visits being made at their own time and convenience. But there is a vast amount of visiting and administrative work among the younger wards which can only be done by women who will devote their whole time to the object. No less than their whole time will do in a work like this, which constantly demands immediate and authoritative attention. Of course, all work is more valuable which is done by persons especially educated for it. To this education experience must be added, and the demand for trained service is nowhere more imperative than where human life and happiness are involved. It requires time and money for a woman to obtain the training which shall fit her for this service. Assuredly, "the laborer is worthy of his hire."

A paper by Mr. Oscar L. Dudley, on "The Illinois Industrial Training School for Boys," was read (page 145).

Mr. CHARLES MARTINDALE, Indianapolis.— When I sat in the sectional meeting on the care of dependent children, and listened to the eloquent addresses by those who advocated the free kindergarten work, and learned the hope and courage there was in that work,— how they reached the child in the home, how they reached the mother through the child, and the father through the mother, and the neighbor through the father,— I asked: Why seek further? Here is the great panacea. But there are conditions which that system cannot reach. We have heard something of the conditions in large cities which even the free kindergartens cannot reach. These are conditions where the strong arm of the State must come in. Parents must be taught that they are responsible, not only to God, but to the State, for their treatment of their children. Children are not chattels: parents have no property in their offspring. The baby which lifts for the first time its feeble cry comes endowed with equal rights with its parents. The parents do not obtain their rights by nature, but by the law of the land, by appointment by the State; and, if they do not rightfully discharge their trust, take care of the child properly, and give it proper education in morals, letters, and religion, it is not only the right of the State, but its duty, to step in for the protection of the

child, and to remove that guardian, that unworthy parent. There are two things that lie at the base of the Board of Children's Guardians of this country,— the insistence on the care of the child in its raising, and in the separation of the child from vicious association. What heredity cannot do, bad association makes perfect for the ruin of the child in the slums of great cities. Our law has been in operation two years. In this time it has investigated 348 cases, taken under its care 123 children. Last year it investigated 71 cases, involving 30 children. It prosecuted 38 of the cases, and these cases involved 75 children. The Board received into its care 50 children, placed in homes 21, in reformatory institutions 4, and has still in its temporary home, to be placed in private families when suitable places can be found, 25 children. We are not certain of this work. It is an experiment. If this Conference can assist us to perfect it, you will have our heartfelt thanks.

Rev. M. V. B. Van Arsdal, general superintendent American Educational Aid Association, Chicago, spoke of the work of that association, which was organized eight years ago for the purpose of providing homes for homeless and dependent children, and said that during that time the association had found homes for 1,677 children.

Rev. James H. Nutting, chaplain of the State Board of Charities, Rhode Island, said that nearly all the children that come to the Reform School come from homes where the moral influence is bad. He, too, thought there was need of reform schools, so that children might be sent there whose parents are unfit to train them at home. They are needed for the protection of the child as well as the protection of society. But the poorest home in the land, if its moral influence is good, is better than the best institution for a child. Nevertheless, the institution has its use. There must be a break between the old manner of life and the life which is to be. The child must be taught certain things before it is fit for a good home. Probably two years in the school would be about the average required. There is no lack of homes for such children. The Reform School could be emptied to-morrow into the homes of Rhode Island if the children were ready to go. Fully eighty per cent. of those who have gone out of the Reform School there, during the last two years, are now leading wholesome lives in the homes where they are placed. The State holds its hand over the child till it is twenty-one. By this time it has acquired the habit of good living. One word about the selection of homes. It is a rule in Rhode Island never to send a girl to a hotel or boarding-house. Children are not often put into childless homes. It is not considered wise to put them into the charge of persons of thirty-five or forty, who have to learn the trade of bringing up children. Reform children are poor children to experiment with in this respect. They are no longer innocent; though, as boys and girls, they are no worse, as a rule, than other boys and girls. They will average better than many who have had better opportunities.

A telegram with greetings to the Conference was received from Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper, of the Golden Gate Kindergarten Association, California.

President McCulloch announced as the Committee on Time and Place of holding the next Conference: Mrs. J. S. Spear, California; William H. Brodhead, Colorado; Sherwood O. Preston, Connecticut; Amos F. Warner, District of Columbia; Mrs. M. E. Kent, Delaware; Mrs. J. M. Flower, Illinois; Rev. S. S. Hunting, Iowa; F. D. Morrison, Maryland; George W. Johnson, Massachusetts; Herbert A. Forrest, Michigan; Dr. A. B. Ancker, Minnesota; John L. Butterfield, Missouri; Rev. W. C. Willson, North Carolina; Nathaniel Rue, New Jersey; William Blake, New York; M. D. Follett, Ohio; Amos Bonsall, Pennsylvania; James H. Nutting, Rhode Island; Dr. W. P. Jones, Tennessee; G. Frellson, Wisconsin; Timothy Nicholson, Indiana.

After the singing of a hymn and the benediction, the Conference adjourned at 10.21 P.M.

SIXTH SESSION.

Saturday morning, May 16.

The Conference was called to order at 9.30 A.M., Hon. W. P. Letchworth in the chair. Prayer was offered by Rev. J. S. Jencks, D.D.

The report from Oregon was called for. As none was presented, Mr. Alexander Johnson stated that Oregon had established a State Board of Charities. Those interested to form such a board wrote to the different States having State Boards for the laws forming them, and devised for themselves one of the very best laws on the statute books of any State. The bill received the signature of the governor only a short time ago. The chances for excellent work are very good. The State is all to make yet. They have small institutions for the deaf and blind, the insane, and for epileptic and feeble-minded children. The penitentiary has some very good points, and some very defective. The Board was started for the purpose of forming, not *re*forming, institutions.

Mrs. Sara A. Spencer presented an invitation to the Conference to meet at the National Chautauqua at Glen Echo, Washington. She then offered the following resolution: —

Resolved, That a committee of seven members of this Conference be appointed by the Chair to provide a programme for the National Chautauqua at Glen Echo

for July 3, and to recommend a course of scientific training in charity and correction for the National Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle.

This was referred to the Business Committee, and on motion the invitation to Glen Echo was referred to the Committee on Time and Place.

The Committee on Time and Place then reported as follows, through the chairman, Mr. Timothy Nicholson:—

Mr. NICHOLSON.— Your Committee on the Time and Place of the next National Conference are united in proposing that the Nineteenth National Conference of Charities and Correction be held in Denver, Col., not earlier than June 20 nor later than July 10, 1892, the exact date to be left with the Executive Committee.

The report was unanimously adopted.

The subject for the morning was the report of the Committee on the Custodial Care of Adult Idiots, Dr. W. B. Fish, of Illinois, chairman, who took charge of the report. Dr. Fish presented his report (page 98). A paper on "Colony Care for Adult Idiots" was read by George H. Knight, M.D., of Connecticut (page 107).

DISCUSSION ON THE CARE OF IMBECILES.

Mr. AMOS BONSALL, Philadelphia.— I have had a long experience with institutions, and I can appreciate what Dr. Knight and Dr. Fish have said. I want to emphasize one point. In the colony system of caring for imbeciles the work is done to a very large degree by themselves. The expenses of the institution at Elwyn per capita, when I first became a manager there, were $300 per annum for the care of these children. It is now reduced to $165. How did we do it? By this very system of colonization, in which I feel an urgent interest. We have 835 feeble-minded and imbecile at Elwyn to-day. There are a thousand more who would be improved and advanced and lifted up by the training which we can give them, and which they lose in the family, where they are unhappy and utterly lonely, of necessity. What has the feeble-minded child to interest it, to draw its intelligence forth, when it has no association with its own kind? As the old prophet said, "Iron sharpeneth iron"; and so these children, when they come together with others of the same calibre, improve each other. It lifts them up. It makes them believe what they could never have believed,— that they have some intelligence, some power, something to live for and to think about. They live a life which would have been impossible in their isolated position in their own families. It is as bad to take a deaf and dumb child and never teach it anything as to keep these children hidden away as they are

in their homes. When we put them in institutions, we bring out all the good there is in them. They are trained to their full capacity, and it is because of this that we can keep them at a lower rate than we could formerly.

Mrs. ISABEL C. BARROWS, of Boston, was called upon to speak. She spoke of the pleasure which she was sure attended the work of caring for these children. Feeble-minded children have usually an affectionate nature. She described the school at Elwyn, Pa., showing the excellent care they receive there and the admirable results.

ALEXANDER JOHNSON, secretary of the Indiana Board of State Charities, said that one of the choicest ornaments on the mantle in his office is a pair of shoes made entirely by a feeble-minded boy in the Indiana School for Feeble-minded Children. The work among these children — and, no matter what their age, they are always children, he said — appeals more strongly to the affections, the sentiment, the reason, and the purse than any other of the dependent classes. What, to those who do not know, would seem a most unpleasant work, to those who do know, becomes a constant pleasure. There are, then, two sides to this question, said Mr. Johnson. There is the most beautiful sentimental side of charity, and there is the strong, practical, economical side. If we could only take care of these imbeciles and prevent their increase, how soon the results would show!

Mr. J. G. BLAKE, Superintendent Institution for Feeble-minded, Indiana.— Very little can be done for imbeciles in their own homes: they need the care of the State. Secretary Johnson has spoken of a pair of shoes made by a boy in our institution. We make every shoe used in that institution. We employ one skilled workman, and all the rest is done by the boys. We made over six hundred pairs last year, and mended nearly two thousand pairs. Our clothing is all made by the children, with one cutter in the tailor shop, one seamstress, and one dressmaker. All this is done by imbecile children. We are beginning the erection of a large industrial building, in which we expect to make every chair and every desk and everything of that sort in wood-work in the institution. We want all the help we can get in the way of suggestions. We want the help of those experienced in the work, and the sympathy of the community.

Col. HENRY STONE, Massachusetts.— In some of the States bills have been introduced and very hotly pressed for the compulsory education of the educable children of the State. Now, it seems to me that here is a class of children who more than any other require education. I want to emphasize the importance of having in every State schools for the feeble-minded. I trust an influence will go out from this Conference which will induce legislatures to establish such schools. In Massachusetts the School for the Feeble-minded was for many years a private institution, belonging to a corporation. A few years ago the State appropriated five thousand dollars a year, then ten thousand, then fifteen thousand, and of late years it has appropriated twenty thousand dollars a year. Lately two hundred thousand

dollars was appropriated to establish the institution in a new place, and the buildings are now completed. I recently visited the custodial department, and it was a touching sight. What Mrs. Barrows says is entirely true as to their gentle and affectionate natures. If you could all see them for yourselves, I am sure there is not one here who would not go home and do his best in the town in which he lives to influence the members of the legislature to do everything possible to have schools for the feeble-minded. We are caring for fifty per cent. of the insane; but we care for only three per cent. of the feeble-minded, who are amenable to discipline, affectionate, and, when brought within the institution, capable of being taught to work. All that is needed is that an interest shall be awakened in this subject which will not be put down and which will not rest until ample provision is made for this greatly needed work.

Mr. Silas N. Gallup, Trustee of the Custodial Asylum for Feeble-minded Women at Newark, N.Y.— We came here to learn, and I am grateful to the many speakers to whom it has been my privilege to listen for the light I have received. I can alone repay them by speaking of the Custodial Asylum for Feeble-minded Women at Newark, N.Y., from which I am commissioned as a delegate. The tenor of the report and paper just read, the assertions therein made that the methods in practice and the results attained at the Custodial Asylum fail to merit or meet general acceptance, and that it is questioned whether Dr. Wilbur, if living, would counsel its perpetuation, clearly evidence the absence of personal acquaintance with these results, or even such casual information as would surely invite careful study and an intelligent examination rather than unfair and unfavorable criticism. I am sure our mission and the result of our work are most seriously misunderstood, as well as the pronounced and effective commendation it has commanded from the charity workers of the Empire State. Dr. Wilbur has left no monument that will keep his memory in more lasting and grateful remembrance than this Custodial Asylum for Feeble-minded Women, the last and most cherished project of a life full of deepest concern for, and studied, faithful devotion to, the unfortunates of his fellows. Born of the necessary conditions of congregated association, it removed from a danger that always and ever environs the most imperilled of our wards in such association to a home where passion could not mislead, and the reproduction and multiplication of their class through these unfortunates is positively prohibited. A good man and his wife as superintendent and matron, with assistants (all women) who come in contact with the three hundred women in its custody,— this protection was made certain, and at the same time the fullest enjoyment of life made possible for them. Labor, study, and recreation are so carefully blended as to provoke highest and most desirable results. Comfort, pleasure, and improvement are evident, so undeniable as to command the confidence and commendation of those most deeply interested in its beneficiaries and their greatest good,— the State Board of Charities

as well as the county superintendents of the poor of the State of New York. We sincerely believe a careful, unprejudiced study of our twelve years of practical work will show the results attained as worthy of emulation and imitation. We invite the personal inspection and unprejudiced criticism of this Conference.

Mr. ELMORE.— I was at Jacksonville, Ill., when the institution for the feeble-minded was there. I have been at Lincoln since it was there. I have been at Dr. Kerlin's institution at Elwyn. And I have been most intensely interested in them all. The care of the feeble-minded interests us more in Wisconsin than the care of the insane; and you may well know we are not indifferent to that! But we have State care for none of the feeble-minded, and I feel ashamed of it. However, we are trying our level best to get a law passed to take care of them. We did get a law four years ago, but the governor did not sign it. I think he made a mistake. I want to thank Dr. Fish and Dr. Knight for what they have said here to-day. We are going to have such an institution in Wisconsin, and right away, too. We are going to fight for it from this day right along, and we are going to succeed in having it. I never felt worse in my life than when I got a letter, not two days before I left home to come here, appealing to me to know what a man should do with an imbecile child. I tell you that we have in almost every poorhouse children that make my heart ache when I see them.

Hon. OSCAR CRAIG, New York.— I want to call attention to the fact, which as one of the members of the State Board I know, that the results of the custodial care at Newark have been good. In fact, I may say they have been excellent. I do not understand that there was any attack on that institution in the paper. I was very much interested in the paper, and can approve of its suggestions. The question was simply raised whether the care should be divorced from the authority of the central institution at Syracuse. The system advocated in the paper is the same system adopted by New York in the care for the insane, and, without affirming or denying its merits, I simply call attention to the point. A word on another point which has been brought out by several speakers,— the necessity for restraint and custody. I do not believe in discharging into the community idiots who have learned to do certain things by routine, but who have not attained the power of self-government under all circumstances; and the reason is obvious,— a reason which goes to the prevention of evil, the prevention of offspring, in the marriage relation or any worse relation. That is a point not peculiar to the treatment of idiots. All scientific specialists in criminal anthropology have come to the almost unanimous conclusion that habitual congenital criminals should be confined for life,— they should be sequestered,— and that all defective classes which perpetuate themselves should be sequestered from the community.

Mr. WILLIAM WEAVER, Superintendent of Poor, Angelica, N.Y.— As superintendent of poor, I have had a little experience in dealing

with imbeciles. We have in Syracuse some who should not be there. There are two young women taken from our county house who should be in the custodial institution at Newark. I do not believe that the separation of the grades is right. I believe that both the institutions are conducted properly with this exception of the separation of the classes. These two young women of whom I have spoken should not bear the stigma of being among the idiotic class. They should be placed among those feeble-minded women, and there they should remain.

Mr. PHILIP G. GILLETT, Superintendent Institution for Deaf and Dumb, Jacksonville, Ill.— I feel very proud that Dr. Fish is from the State of Illinois. It is not a fish-growing country; but we have one Fish that we expect to exhibit at the Exposition, and we expect to take the prize. I had something to do with the organization of the institution for the feeble-minded in Illinois. Previous to the organization of these institutions the most elementary methods of instruction were found in practice in schools for the deaf and dumb, and many feeble-minded children were brought to the schools of this character; and, as a matter of course, the superintendents of institutes for the deaf had the feasibility of the instruction of this class of children brought to their attention. I know something of the prejudices against enterprises of this kind. I know what it costs. But I am very glad to say this prejudice is abating. There is no more powerful exponent of the power of the civilization of the nineteenth century than this work; and I have no doubt that we shall see it spread more and more until in every State of this proud Union of ours we shall find not only the young feeble-minded educated and trained as far as practicable, but we shall find the adult, so far as is consistent with the best interests of society and their own, cared for in custodial institutions.

Dr. FISH.— I wish to say to the friends connected with the Newark institution that they have my warmest and deepest sympathy and admiration in their work, and I do not wish to be understood as criticising it. We simply feel that it was a mistake to locate the custodial branch so far away from the parent institution. We have our various opinions, and I am not necessarily right; but that is the judgment of the majority of those connected with this work.

Hon. S. S. PIERSON, President State Custodial Asylum for Feeble-minded Women, Newark, N.Y.— The able paper read in our hearing bears solely on the question of custodial care for the idiotic; and the simple question resolves itself into the congregate or colony system, or the separate and individual plant. One speaker has made mention of the State Custodial Asylum for Feeble-minded Women at Newark, which reflects upon the wisdom of its founders. The asylum is not for the idiotic, but, as the name implies, for feeble-minded women from the age of fifteen to forty-five. It may be of interest to the convention to have explained the manner in which the entire State has successfully solved this universally perplexing problem. Feeble-

minded women were found congregated in all the poorhouses of our State, as they are to-day in all of yours, if not especially provided for. The State Board of Charities sent them to the State Idiot Asylum, kept on the colony plan. The well-known and able superintendent, Dr. Wilbur, asked that some plan be provided for this class of adult feeble minds, as they seriously interfered with the educational interests and improvement of the younger and brighter minds. The State Board of Charities reported a large number of this class in the county houses, multiplying their kind and increasing their number by a misassociation of the sexes. By the joint action of Dr. Wilbur and the State Board, custodial care was instituted as an experiment for three years. The experiment proved conclusively that not only was the parent asylum benefited materially by their absence, but this class so provided for made greater progress, being continually employed in industrial or educational lines. Mental, moral, and physical improvement was very great, and manifested itself in their desire to learn, improve, and care for each other.

The economy of the system suggested itself not only in prevention of immorality by roaming about in idleness, drunkenness, improvidence, and vicious indulgences: the per capita weekly cost for five years past averages only $2.19 per week. An experience of twelve years has proved the humanity and economy of a separate system. In the words of Mrs. Anna T. Wilson, "Every feeble-minded person stands as evidence of the violation of some divine law, either physical or spiritual; and we owe a double debt to them." Custodial care means a home for the homeless, surrounded with all the protections that home brings,— employment for idleness, mental improvement for ignorance, moral improvement for vice and crime. No State can afford to neglect this unfortunate class; and no State, especially a large one, can afford to keep the feeble-minded of a child-bearing age in any other than separate custodial care.

Hon. W. P. Letchworth.— Dr. Wilbur was, as I always understood him, very tenacious of the opinion that separate institutions should be provided for the teachable class of the feeble-minded and those requiring only custodial care. I feel that the course taken by New York State in establishing a custodial asylum for feeble-minded women of New York — a course that was sanctioned and practically furthered by the State Board of Charities — was proper and desirable.

A paper on "The Defective Classes," by Mr. A. O. Wright, was read by title, and ordered to be printed (page 222).

The remainder of the session was devoted to a memorial to Dr. A. G. Byers, the President of the Seventeenth Conference, and to Dr. Richard Gundry, of Maryland. Addresses were made by Rev. F. H. Wines, Mr. F. B. Sanborn, General Brinkerhoff, Rev. H. H.

Hart, Mr. A. E. Elmore, Mr. John Glenn, Mr. Alexander Johnson, and Mr. A. O. Wright (page 242).

Adjourned, after the singing of "The Song of the Silent Ones," at 12.30 P.M.

SEVENTH SESSION.

Saturday night, May 16.

The Conference was called to order at 8 P.M. by the President. The subject for the evening was the report of the Committee on Co-operation of Women in the Management of Charitable, Penal, and Correctional Institutions, Miss Clara Barton, chairman. The report was prepared and read by Mrs. Virginia T. Smith, of Connecticut, of the same committee (page 230).

Mr. P. C. Garrett was called to the chair.

DISCUSSION ON CO-OPERATION OF WOMEN.

Mrs. JACOBS, Colorado.— I want to speak a word for Colorado. We have a State Board of Control on which there are one man and four women, which speaks very well for the woman question in Colorado. We have a police matron, a county jail in which we have placed a matron to take care of the women and girls, and in our penitentiary we have placed a matron for the women. But we do not begin at the right time to save these girls. Girls come into the city strangers, and are easily led to ruin. There should be at every depot a good woman to look after every young girl or boy who comes into the city to guide them into proper homes or into a Christian boarding-house. The Charity Organization Society recently got up a petition and went before the Board of Police Commissioners and demanded a woman at the depot, and the answer was that there was no appropriation; but one woman came forward, and said she would serve gratuitously for a certain number of months until an appropriation could be made. In every line of work, when you meet the question fairly and squarely, the women come to the front. We have also in Denver numbers of organizations of which women are certainly at the head. The Women's Christian Association is run entirely by women, and they do a vast amount of good. The Women's Exchange is run entirely by women; and hundreds and hundreds of working-women carry articles to this exchange to be sold, paying a percentage for the privilege, thus doing their work at home with their families.

Mrs. L. L. FLOWER, Chicago.— Mrs. Smith in her report said nothing of Illinois; and I desire to mention one or two things to the credit of that State, and at the same time reply to a question asked a day or two ago by the delegate from Louisiana, as to what can be done with the insane arrested in the streets of cities while awaiting

the action of the court to commit them to an asylum. Up to six years ago the same condition existed in Chicago which he says now obtains in New Orleans. An insane man arrested was locked in a cell in some station or jail, and kept without care, without the slightest possibility of even personal cleanliness,— food just pushed through the door for him. And in most cases, before he could be brought before the proper authorities and steps taken to send him to an asylum, his mental condition had become greatly worse by this inhuman treatment. Six years ago an extremely aggravated case of this kind was brought to the attention of the Reform Committee of the Woman's Club; and they at once began to enlist the sympathies and interest of the officials and others, and soon induced the county board to set apart a ward in the jail for the insane, and to appoint a physician and attendant. This was followed by a division of the ward into two departments,— one for men and one for women,— and the appointment of a female attendant. These wards were called the Insane Department of the County Jail. The next move was to persuade the officials that it was a shame and disgrace to connect the innocent insane with criminals by speaking of their place of detention as an insane department of the jail, and a motion was made to call these wards "The Detention Hospital." As soon as this name had become fully established, we were able to remonstrate against having an insane *hospital* in a jail. And the final result is that a good detention hospital is to be built, contracts having just been let. This has been largely the women's work, acting in co-operation with the physicians and humanitarians generally. We have also in Chicago police matrons in all the stations, and this was brought about by the efforts of the women of the Woman's Club and the Woman's Christian Temperance Union. Now the women are going to make an effort, in co-operation with the health department, to clean the streets, and have them in good order for the Fair. Women are more successful oftentimes in these works because they have the time to devote to it, which business men and persons dependent on their own exertions for a livelihood have not.

Miss Richmond, Baltimore.— When this programme was arranged in Baltimore last year, I remember wondering why it was that they did not select as a subject the co-operation of men as more noteworthy. Haven't women done the most of the work for many years? It is because the men have not done more that the work has been done badly. I think the reason the most of our church work is so slipshod is because women have done the most of it. Men and women should work together. I remember last year Miss Smith called attention to the splendid work being done by men as friendly visitors in Boston. In Baltimore they are doing the same thing. Men can do personal work as well as women, sometimes better. It is only fair that we should insist that in all parts of the work it is not a question of sex, but of capacity.

Mrs. D'Arcambal, Michigan.— I believe that no institution is com-

plete without a good man and a good woman at the head. I have had a good deal of experience in charitable work; and, in going to various places where girls are confined in reformatories, I have seen the effects upon them where there was a good man and a good woman at the head of the institution,— a man pure in mind, body, and soul, whom they could look up to and respect, and a woman by his side who was an inspiration to better life. I never went into a poor-house or convention of superintendents of the poor in my life, but I have heard the question asked, "How is such a superintendent getting along?" and have heard the reply, "Pretty well; but, if it were not for his wife, he could not do anything." When they hire a man, the first question is, What kind of a wife has he? There must be co-operation all the way through between men and women.

Mrs. M. W. Bone, Indianapolis.— It is a new thing for Indianapolis to have a police matron. Therefore, some of our members thought it might be of interest to this audience to know under whose authority she holds her place, and how it was created without any special law for it. There being no law against it, all that was necessary was a strong public sentiment in its favor. Many thoughtful and benevolent citizens have desired such an officer for several years. The Charity Organization Society made an effort a few years since to secure such an officer, but failed. A little more than a year ago the Meridian Woman's Christian Temperance Union took this as its special object, deciding to leave nothing undone that could be accomplished by patience and persistence. We appointed a committee to interview our city and State officers, and discover their sentiments in regard to our work, and the means by which to effect our purpose. They found our governor, our mayor, and a large portion of our best public men conscious of the fact that a woman was needed at our station house to take charge of the women and children who were brought there. To find any one having authority to place her there was quite a different matter. Our representatives were sent from one committee of the city council to another, finding the members personally in favor of such an officer, but officially unable to do anything for us. This committee was finally assured that the authority must rest with our Police Board, and they appealed to them. The Board, as then constituted, claimed to have no authority to appoint and pay from the city treasury a police matron; also, that there was no suitable place for such a person at the station house. A few thought that she was not needed. Realizing that possession was nine-tenths of the law, with an almost empty treasury, we decided to employ a matron, and rent a room for her across the street from the station house, if we could obtain permission for her to assume the usual duties of matron. This privilege was granted; and we sent to Chicago for some one who had had experience in such work. A Miss Campbell, who had been in training there for three weeks, was sent to us. The change from Chicago, where they have about twenty matrons clothed with authority, to this place where she was merely

admitted upon suffrance, was so great that it was somewhat difficult for Miss Campbell to adjust herself to her new position. But she did some good pioneer work for us in this line. When the last legislature adopted our new city charter and our city government was reorganized, the subject of police matrons was referred to the Commissioners of Public Safety. Our society then renewed its request to have a police matron appointed with this provision,— that we should have the privilege of nominating her. A petition was sent in that our request be granted. The city papers, with one exception, advocated our cause when we presented it to them, and did much to mould public sentiment in its favor. And our new commissioners kindly, cordially, and promptly granted our request, renovated and remodelled the station house, fitting up a neat room for a matron's use, with the condition that our society should furnish it. We nominated and the board appointed Mrs. Anna Buchanan, who is filling the office most acceptably. Her name is on the pay-roll, and she is subject to the orders of the Chief of Police. We have spent a little over $200 in salary and furnishing her room, and feel amply repaid for our effort. We have been aided in this by the ladies' societies of several of the churches. From the beginning, throughout all our efforts, we have had the valuable aid and sympathy of Mayor Sullivan; and to his influence we attribute much of our success. I must not fail to mention the kind and gentlemanly treatment accorded to us and our matron by Mr. Colbert, chief of police, and by other members of the Board.

Dr. MOULTON, Boston.— Having had an extended experience in visiting other institutions, I have come to feel that lady visitors are very much needed in almshouses. I have visited almshouses especially to look after the condition of the insane; and it is for their benefit that I am most interested in having lady visitors make frequent visits,— not semi-occasional, but weekly visits, if possible. I should say that even in those almshouses where there are no actually insane, there are many dependent and helpless people who certainly demand very strongly the kindly attention of women.

Gen. BRINKERHOFF.— Dr. Moulton suggests a field for usefulness for women that we have tried in Ohio. Some eight years ago we had a law enacted in Ohio which provides for what is known as county visitors. It is a board composed of two men and three women. I drafted that law myself, and had it introduced into the legislature. As I drafted it, I had three men and two women; but, for once, a member of the legislature improved on a bill, and made it two men and three women. Another member crippled the bill by making it optional instead of mandatory, with the Courts of Common Pleas to appoint these boards; and the result is that only in one-half of the eighty-eight counties have we had these visitors. There is nothing more valuable in our State than these boards of visitors who have authority to visit at all times any institution supported out of the county fund. In the county in which ex-President Hayes lives, Mrs.

Hayes became a member of the first Board of County Visitors; and she remained a member until her death, and did a great and good work. They reconstructed and rejuvenated that county infirmary, and secured a new jail properly constructed. These boards have no executive power whatever. They only report to the Court of Common Pleas. I recommend this system of having a board of county visitors, serving without pay. I would like to see them in every county.

Dr. HOYT, New York.— We began the same process in 1873. We have boards appointed by the Board of Charities, with legal powers. They can visit any institution except those that have boards of management appointed by the State. Under the law of 1878, the judges also had power to appoint visitors; and where they do not act, the Board of Charities acts. When I first began to visit the poorhouses of New York, more than twenty years ago, the burden of complaint on the part of the keepers, and especially of the wives, was that their work was unknown in the community and that they had no sympathy from the outside world. This matter coming to the notice of our Board, we had no trouble in getting the legislature to appoint these visitors; and I want to bear my testimony in very strong favor of this voluntary visitation. It has done great good in our State. The majority of these visitors are women.

Dr. ROGERS, of New York, said that women had done great good in Queens County.

Miss MARY HADLEY, Superintendent Industrial School for Girls, Bloomington, Ind.— There are some lines of work that men can fill better than women. I believe that much of the work of this organization might be unnecessary if we could get down to the basis of our trouble, and work more on the line of prevention. The women are doing what they can in kindergartens and industrial schools, and this is their line of work for prevention. Men can co operate by giving us better laws. The women should ask for this, and the preachers should begin the work.

Mrs. V. T. SMITH.— If women are to visit almshouses, we must have them accessible, and not on the highest hilltop or back of some hill where the snow lies so deep that we frequently have to walk the fences to get to them. But I believe no work is better than the visitation of poorhouses. We have taken the able-bodied children out of them, and so have other States; but what do we do with incurable children? A superintendent lately asked me to take care of a poor little fellow whose lower limbs were twisted out of all shape. He was kept with the insane, and the superintendent was constantly afraid of his being scalded. He had been scalded twice. In another almshouse was a boy of twelve, who had lost both knee-pans from an accident with a double-runner. I put some fruit for him under the bedclothes, for otherwise it would have been taken away and eaten by the insane woman who took care of him. We do want visitation in our poorhouses, and we want the poorhouses themselves with pleasant surroundings and with competent care-takers.

Hon. JOHN G. DOREN, Ohio.— For the encouragement of co-operation of women in charitable and reformatory work, I want to call attention to a bit of history in Ohio,— the work of a woman now living, and dating back not more than twenty years. We have now a law in Ohio making it illegal to maintain a child over two years old in a poorhouse. There are thirty-seven orphans' homes in Ohio supported by taxation, and the establishing of these homes is due to Katie Fay, of Marietta, Ohio. Children may be maintained until sixteen years old in these asylums, the law requiring that they shall be placed out in homes before that age.

Mrs. SMITH.— That is done for healthy children?

Mr. DOREN.— It is done for all children.

Mr. ALEXANDER JOHNSON.— We have in Indiana one board entirely composed of women, another made up of three trustees, one of whom is a woman, and on our State Board of Charities we have two women. The co-operation of women in public charitable work is certainly important.

Judge FOLLETT, Ohio.— Mrs. Fay took these children to her own home at first, afterwards receiving assistance to the amount of one dollar a week for clothing, board, and care. She labored for years, until her neighbors and those connected with the county work and others throughout the State began to know of her work and feel her influence. Then the legislature by law separated all children from the almshouses. Mrs. Fay still lives in Marietta, and her influence is still felt throughout Ohio.

Mrs. CHARLES M. WALKER, of the Board of Trustees of the Women's Prison and Reformatory for Girls, Indiana.— I think there has been a great deal said about co-operation of women and men. Indiana is decidedly a co-operative State. The institution with which I am connected is entirely governed by women. We have an advisory board of men to fall back on, but I cannot recollect when we have had to do so. The State has divided its reformatories into two separate institutions,— one at Plainfield for boys, and the other near this city for girls. Under the same roof we have girls to be reformed and women prisoners, which I do not think is wise. They do not come together. We have sixty prisoners, while the men in the State's prisons number twelve hundred. I think we show well in co-operation in that line. All our officers are women. I do not know why we employ three men who do not live in the institution,— a man who drives the laundry-wagon, another who watches at night, and an engineer. We are looking for a woman engineer, but thus far have not been able to find one. I hope the women will become alive to the question of taking charge of their women prisoners and of their girls; for women can come closer to sinful women than any man, and the mother's heart can come nearer to the heart of a girl than any man. I hope we shall hear of other States dealing likewise with their unfortunate women and girls.

Mr. HART.— Are women sent to you for fixed terms?

Mrs. WALKER.— Yes, we have life prisoners. We hold all the women prisoners of the State, for every grade of crime.

Mrs. JACOBS.— What industries have you?

Mrs. WALKER.— We have laundries in both departments. We do work for the city. We have sewing, dressmaking, and we make overalls. Our girls take care of our stable, horses and cows, ducks and chickens.

Mr. NUTTING, of Rhode Island, said that the Girls' Reform School of his State had only one-sixth as many inmates as there were in the Boys' Reform School. I find myself, said he, inquiring whether this is due to the superior morality and law-abiding qualities of girls. I am frank to say that I have come to the conclusion that it is not the fact. The offences committed against law and social order by boys are not the offences committed by girls. They are another class of offences, more annoying and more noticed by the police. There is as much need beginning early with the girls to secure prevention of crime as with the boys. The fact that there is but one-sixth as many girls in the Reform School is due to the fact that there is no such attempt made to prevent girls going to ruin as to bring boys to justice, or rather what I shall call to bring the boys to mercy. I go down to the city sometimes and remain awhile in the evening. I never walk half a dozen blocks without stumbling over half a score of young girls, some but twelve or fourteen years old, who ought either to be at home or locked up for their safety. Our lewd and wanton classes become such before they are sixteen years old. It is frequently only because a girl is "lippy" — that is, saucy to the policeman — that she is arrested. It is not for purposes of reform, but revenge on the part of the policeman. I wish the women would co-operate with their husbands to get a law to commit these children if found on the street in the evening. We have a woman's prison where we have every grade of crime, and the women manage them much better than men would do. In our Reform School for Girls there is no man connected with the institution: we do not need any.

Mrs. MARY HAGGART, Indianapolis.— No one doubts that the best of all charities is that which enables people to help themselves. Such a charity has been initiated by the Woman's Christian Temperance Union of this State. The way has been made possible for the full development of this charity by the gift of a farm of one hundred and ten acres for the purpose of establishing an industrial school for the little girls of the State. As it will be for the training of good, pure girls, it ought to reach a high standard. No outlay of energy or means will be required for reformatory work. Each girl will be taught some industrial vocation that will fit her to earn her own bread when she goes into the world. As this will be as broad as the State, all citizens may have a part in this charity, and thus become benefactors to the homeless girls of Indiana. Those without homes are exposed to foes everywhere. To educate, train, discipline, and protect these girls is the mission of this school. Men and women can co-operate in putting this upon a broad platform.

Mr. LETCHWORTH.— I think reference should be made here to the work of the women of Buffalo in securing the law which requires that there shall be one or more women physicians appointed on the medical staff of each of the hospitals for the insane in the State of New York. We consider this a great step in advance, and it was brought about by the women of the Industrial and Educational Union of Buffalo co-operating with their sisters throughout the State. We think it is a very beneficial law, and look for good results from it. I wish to add a bit of unwritten history respecting another movement to enlarge the sphere of women in our charitable work, which did not prove so successful. Some years since, Mrs. Abby Hopper Gibbons, of New York, led the women in a movement to obtain legislation for the appointment of two or more women on the boards of trustees of all the State charitable institutions in which there were women or children. They did not ask that these appointments should be absolute, but that they should be made only when vacancies occurred caused by the death or resignation of members of existing boards. It was not proposed to disappoint those trustees whose terms of office had expired and who desired to be reappointed. This was a modest way of putting it. The act passed the Assembly and the Senate, but, I am sorry to say, was vetoed by the governor, upon the ground that he thought there could not be found women enough in the State suitable to fill the positions who would accept them. The bill was introduced in the legislature the following year, and, having passed the Assembly, on its final passage through the Senate the substitution of the little word "may" for "shall" nullified the act, making it read the governor "may appoint" instead of "shall appoint." Mrs. Gibbons, on learning of this change, feeling herself unequal to the cunning expedients resorted to in legislation, withdrew her bill, and there the matter has since rested.

Mr. ALEXANDER JOHNSON said that boards of trustees made up of men and women had worked well in Indiana. He said: You must have co-operation between men and women. The best care for women I ever saw, except in some of the county insane asylums of Wisconsin, where they have the best care, that I know, in the world, was where there was a large number of women, and the head was a woman who had absolute charge as superintendent. I know another institution where a man has absolute charge over all the women, and I have never seen better. We are trying joint boards, and they are working well. I hope that this committee will be continued, that we may have more statistics and information on this subject, that we may see how far co-operation prevails in the different States and what the result has been. I presume, of course, that it will be beneficial.

Mrs. SMITH.— I hope this Conference will come to Hartford, though I am told that we need not look for it before 1895. By that time, I trust, men and women will be working together in insane hospitals as physicians as well as nurses, and in penal and charitable institutions everywhere.

The following resolutions presented by Mr. A. L. Welsh, of Denver, were referred to the Business Committee: —

Whereas the custom of placing women on administrative boards of charities and on boards of trustees of charitable and reformatory institutions does not obtain in all States,—

Resolved, That the success attained in those States where women have been so placed inspires this committee to recommend that other States follow the example, and that in those States just forming Boards of Charities the placing of women on such Boards is urgently recommended; and that the influence of this Conference be given to the appointment of women on equal terms with men on all boards of trustees of public or private charitable, penal, or reformatory institutions, especially on boards of overseers of the poor in cities and towns and to the employment of women as physicians in insane hospitals.

(Signed) Agnes L. D'Arcambal.
Anne B. Richardson.
Joan S. Sperry.
Alice R. Charlton.
Laura Ream.

A telegram was read from Mrs. M. C. Goodlett, inviting the Conference to hold its next session in Nashville, Tenn.

The benediction was pronounced by Rabbi Berkowitz, of Missouri. Adjourned at 10 P.M.

EIGHTH SESSION.

Sunday morning, May 17.

The Conference assembled in the First Presbyterian Church. The Conference sermon was preached by Rev. Myron W. Reed, Denver, Col. (page 20).

NINTH SESSION.

Sunday night, May 17.

There was a public meeting of the Conference in English's Opera House at 8 P.M. Rev. Myron W. Reed presided. Three addresses were given: "Public Charities in Europe," by Mr. F. B. Sanborn (page 167); "Experiences as a Charity Organization Visitor in New York," by Mrs. Louise Seymour Houghton, of New York; and "The International Conference of Charities and Correction in 1893," by Rev. F. H. Wines.

ABSTRACT OF MRS. HOUGHTON'S ADDRESS.

The friendly visitor is to take comfort into the houses of the poor. I do not mean sentimental comfort. She is not to pretend that she is sorry, or that she is afflicted by the afflictions she sees about her, and then go back to her own comfortable home. She is to be a great loving heart, loving the people that she goes to, and trying to see what will be for their good. It is a work of profound study and intense affection.

At this point a number of persons rose as if to leave. Mr. McCulloch came to the edge of the stage. "There was once," said he, "a minister who preached from the text, 'Thou art weighed in the balance, and found wanting.' As this minister was talking, some of his congregation went out. 'That's right, friends,' said he, 'as fast as you are weighed and found wanting pass out.' I hope no one will leave this house during these exercises, but that every one will observe the common courtesies of Indianapolis."

Mrs. HOUGHTON.— Of course, the first duty of the friendly visitor is to try to prevent waste. The wastefulness of the poor stands very much in the way of their comfort and happiness. The most important thing is to prevent the waste of life, the wasting of child life especially. It seems to me almost impossible that a child should grow up decent and happy and good in a tenement house. And, when one sees the hosts of children all about the streets of New York, one feels perfectly hopeless of ever trying to save them. Some years ago my sister lived in a country place where people came from the city to spend the summer. Each family used to bring a kitten for the children to play with, and, when they went away in the fall, the kitten, which had grown to be a cat, was left behind. It made a bee-line for my sister's house. She was kind-hearted, and took care of these deserted cats; and they began to be numerous about the house. She had an English watch-dog, which was brought up to be on terms of amity with the family cats; but, when there came to be forty or fifty cats about the house, he thought it time something should be done, and he would give a cat a shake by the neck, and that would settle it. Then he would carefully bury it in the sand. My sister told him he must not kill another; but she said nothing about burying them, and he continued to plant them deep in the sand. This was very trying to the children. One day a little boy came in, with tears in his eyes and a mangled cat in his apron, and, sobbing, said, "Look, here's another perfectly good cat spoiled."

That is the way with the children in the city of New York. They are perfectly good when they come, but there is a heavier and more relentless paw laid upon them than that of the dog; and the first thing

in the mind of these friendly visitors is to keep the children from being spoiled. She gives them the best love she has and the best of her powers. No friendly visitor can begin to tell you of the joys and rewards she finds in her work. I do not expect to get rid of my families until they are dead. I feel as Betsy Trotwood did when she said to Wilkins Micawber, "If you will continue getting into jail, we'll have to continue bailing you out." There is no way out of the tenement house. We do not alter the conditions in New York. We do the best we can. We give them our love, and the people are all made better by our coming.

We many a time find our people suffering from ignorance and a great many times from oppression. One of my families was more bitterly poor than I can tell you. They were hungry day after day. But they kept up the five cents' insurance on the life of each child. Finally, the eldest, a boy of fourteen, was sick, and was taken to the hospital. He was going to die. By ignorance on the part of the woman and knavery on the part of the agent the insurance papers were taken away, the agent promising to bring new ones. When the boy died, I went to collect the money due, and found it was a provision that the papers were not good unless fourteen weeks had elapsed since the making out of the form. Only eleven weeks had elapsed. They would not give her anything. This poor, ignorant woman, who could not speak English, could have done nothing for herself. The friendly visitor could help her here. I went to the president of the company, and he told me there was no help. He had no proof that the papers had been changed, and he thought I was mistaken. The agent had been dismissed. But there are some fine lawyers who give a portion of their time for this work; and I went to one, and the result was that the woman received the $109 due her. But what a friendly visitor *does* is nothing compared to what she *is* to her family. When a person goes to the house of a poor family with a basket of groceries or money, they like it, of course; and, when the person comes the next time and brings no basket, they are disappointed, they do not like it. But, when the friendly visitor comes, they do not think of that. They welcome the friendship, the advice, the sympathy, which the friendly visitor is made richer by giving. I do not believe there is a friendly visitor who, when she sees these souls being re-created and lives becoming really lives under the gracious influence of her own heart love, does not say with infinite joy, "I think thy thoughts after thee, O God."

ABSTRACT OF ADDRESS BY MR. WINES.

As soon as it was known that we were to have the Columbian International Exposition at Chicago in 1893, this Conference saw its opportunity. We have now been laboring for nearly twenty years to bring to the public consciousness some sense of the importance of humanitarian work under all its aspects,— religious, economical, po-

litical, scientific, and social. It has, partly in consequence of our efforts, gradually found its way more than before into the pulpits and press of the country, including our magazine literature. If advantage be taken of the assembling of the representatives of the different nations of the world in Chicago, we shall there be able to bring still more clearly and forcibly to the attention of the American people the great subject which has enlisted our thoughts and our sympathies for so many years. At our meeting in Baltimore it was decided to hold the Conference of 1893 in Chicago, and to invite to meet with us the International Conference of Charities organized in Paris at the time of the Paris Exposition. It was also decided to organize, if possible, an exhibit of the methods, appliances, and results of charitable and correctional work. We think that we may be able to get together from institutions and associations many things which will interest and instruct the public, if only a portion of the building can be set apart for this purpose, and if some one connected with us can be appointed by the Director-General to take charge of it.

We desire to show to intelligent foreigners who visit us at that time that, while we are a commercial nation, supposed to be exclusively absorbed in money-making, we yet have higher interests and aspirations than wealth or material activity. We wish to display not only our inventions and the progress which we have made in the sciences and arts, but the moral aspects of our national life as well.

The Director General of the Exposition has signified his intention to co-operate with us. The Auxiliary Committee appointed to assist in the organization of International Congresses in Chicago in 1893 has also signified its approval. I am authorized to make the announcement that we shall have space given to us, and that a man of our own selection will be appointed to take charge of this exhibit. A place will be assigned us in which to hold the International Conference. We ought to make this one of the most memorable events in the history of charitable and correctional work of the nineteenth century. On behalf of this Conference and of the direction of the Columbian Exposition, I invite and urge you all to come to Chicago in 1893 to see our exhibit and to take part in our proceedings.

TENTH SESSION.

Monday morning, May 18.

The Conference was called to order at 10 A.M., the President in the chair. Prayer was offered by Rev. W. F. Taylor.

The following resolution, offered by Bishop Gillespie, was read, and referred to the Committee on Resolutions :—

Whereas questions of penology and pauperism enter into all the interests of business, government, social life, and education,— therefore,

Resolved, That penology and pauperism should in some form be introduced into our schools, colleges, universities, and theological institutions, and that this Conference will welcome and assist any efforts in this direction.

Resolved, That a copy of this resolution be communicated to each Corresponding Secretary, with the request that he will promote its intent in such mode as he may see fit.

Mr. WINES.— I have been requested by Mr. Trusdell, chairman of the special committee appointed to bring up the subject of the Exhibit of Charities and Correction at Chicago, to say a word for him. He was obliged to leave on account of his wife's health. I do not know what Mr. Trusdell has done in the matter of communicating with the other members of that committee. The committee has never been called together; but Mr. Trusdell, as chairman, has been in communication with Director-General Davis, and General Davis has sent this letter, which Mr. McCulloch will now read.

The following letter was then read : —

Rev. O C. MCCULLOCH, President National Conference of Charities and Correction, Indianapolis, Ind. :

Dear Sir,— I am informed that the National Conference of Charities and Correction, of which you are President, adopted a resolution at Baltimore inviting the International Conference of Charities to meet in Chicago in 1893, looking to the organization of an exhibit at that time, in connection with the World's Columbian Exposition, of the methods, appliances, and results of charitable and correctional work throughout the world.

I desire to say to you on behalf of the authorities of the Exposition that the action taken commands their approval and sympathy, and that they will do whatever may be in their power to forward the object aimed at.

I desire that you should lay this communication before the Conference, and invite co-operation on their part with the management of the Exposition for the accomplishment of the purposes which we have in common.

The Hon. E. B. Martindale, one of the members of the Board of Control, has been requested, on behalf of the Fair, to attend the Conference in Indianapolis.

Yours very truly,

GEO. R. DAVIS,
Director-General.

A letter from C. C. Bonney, president of the World's Congress Auxiliary of the World's Columbian Exposition, was also read, from which the following are extracts : —

Rev. O. C. McCulloch, President National Conference of Charities and Correction, Indianapolis, Ind.:

My dear Sir,— I write you, at the request of Dr. F. H. Wines, Secretary of the State Board of Public Charities of Illinois, to state briefly what the World's Congress Auxiliary is, and what facilities it will be able to offer to your Conference for holding its proposed meeting in Chicago in 1893.

The entire Material Exhibit is under the jurisdiction of the Exposition authorities proper, with the aid of the United States Commission. In that exhibit the Auxiliary will have no direct or active participation. It is confined by its constitution to conventions of persons and their proceedings. Incidentally, there can be no doubt that the success of the Auxiliary, in the proposed World's Congresses will result in largely increasing the quantity and improving the quality of the exhibit of material things.

The World's Congress Auxiliary is an organization authorized and supported by the Illinois corporation known as the World's Columbian Exposition. The Auxiliary has also been recognized and approved by the government of the United States. Its general announcement has been sent to foreign governments by the Department of State, and an appropriation on account of its expenses has been made by act of Congress. A committee of the World's Columbian Commission has been appointed to co-operate with it. The object of the Auxiliary is to promote the holding of appropriate conventions during the World's Columbian Exposition of 1893 for the consideration of the living questions in all the departments of human progress, and, in addition thereto, a Union Congress of each department, under the direction of the Auxiliary, in which the important results accomplished will be set forth by the most eminent representatives who can attend, thus securing freedom and independence of separate organizations, and union and harmony in presenting to the world the higher achievements of mankind; while the people who will come to the Exposition may enjoy the privilege of seeing and hearing many of the conspicuous leaders in the various departments of progress. As is said in one of its announcements, "The Exposition will present the progress of mankind as represented by material forms; while the Auxiliary will portray that progress with the pen and the living voice, and will endeavor to crown the whole glorious work by the formation and adoption of better and more comprehensive plans than have hitherto been pursued to secure the progress, prosperity, unity, peace, and happiness of the world."

As several of the proposed congresses will probably be attended by from ten to twenty thousand persons, it is obvious that unless some regulation be made to distribute the congresses during the six months of the Exposition term, intolerable confusion would result, disastrously affecting the proposed congresses. The preliminary report of the Auxiliary, therefore, suggests such distribution; but, for the most part, the proposed arrangements are still open to change,

and suggestions of a more convenient arrangement than that proposed are cordially invited.

As to places of meeting, it is expected that ample provision will be made by the Exposition authorities for the accommodation of all the proposed congresses, under the arrangement suggested. It is also expected that the various audience-rooms for the large conventions and for the chapters and sections of different departments, will be provided free of cost to the convening bodies, unless for incidental expenses, the reservation of seats for those desiring to secure them in advance, or the like.

In conclusion, I cordially invite the suggestions and co-operation of your organization for the proposed congresses on Moral and Social Reform, including charitable, penal, and preventive institutions. Tendering you, on behalf of the Auxiliary, whatever it can do to forward the aims of your society, and asking whatever aid you can render in behalf of the proposed World's Congresses of 1893, I have the honor to be, Very sincerely yours,

CHARLES C. BONNEY,
President W. C. A.

Mr. WINES.— Although the committee has not been called together, everything has been accomplished which was intended in its appointment. I presume the committee will not be continued after this meeting; but it will be necessary to appoint a committee to take charge of the work of preparation of this exhibit, and to make arrangements with the International Conference. These are two entirely distinct and separate affairs. The managers of the Exposition do not consider themselves responsible for anything but the exhibit; but there are two auxiliary committees, one of men and one of women. I myself believe in men and women working together. When I meet a woman, I never think that she is a woman except to show her a courtesy. I do not believe in this division, but that is the way they have done it; and these two auxiliary committees will meet together without any doubt, and will do all that they can to forward the Congress.

Mr. Wines then offered the following resolutions: —

Resolved, That the President of the Eighteenth National Conference of Charities and Correction appoint a committee of nine, of which he shall himself be one, to be known as the Committee on the International Conference of Charities and Correction for 1893, which shall continue for two years, and its powers and duties shall be as follows: —

First, to arrange for an exhibit of all forms and appliances connected with the charitable and penal institutions and societies; and

Second, to arrange a programme for the Conference in connection with this same exhibit; and,

Further, that this committee shall have power to add to their number as may

seem best to them, and power to take any action necessary to direct the arrangements for the said Conference.

The resolution was referred to the Business Committee.

The following committee was appointed subsequently, but for convenience of reference is inserted here: —

Committee on International Conference: F. H. Wines, Illinois, chairman; H. H. Hart, Minnesota; L. C. Storrs, Michigan; F. B. Sanborn, Massachusetts; A. E. Elmore, Wisconsin; R. Brinkerhoff, Ohio; Oscar Craig, New York; John M. Glenn, Maryland; Oscar C. McCulloch, Indiana.

Mr. SANBORN asked why the committee appointed at Baltimore had never been called together.

Mr. WINES replied that he thought the work had been done by correspondence.

Mr. CRAIG said that he was one member of that committee. It had been impossible for him to go to Chicago, and he was perfectly satisfied with the action of Mr. Trusdell.

Mr. MCCULLOCH said that it would have involved great expense for the committee to have come together, and he thought the work had been well accomplished as it was.

The regular topic for the morning session was then taken up,—the report of the Committee on Hospitals. A paper on "Hospital Cleanliness" was read by Dr. H. C. Wyman, Professor of Surgery in the Medical College of Medicine and Surgery, and surgeon of the Detroit Emergency Hospital (page 53).

DISCUSSION ON HOSPITALS.

Dr. ARTHUR B. ANCKER, St. Paul.— There is, to my mind, no question that should receive more prominence than the cleanliness of hospitals. It has been well treated in this admirable paper. Members of my own profession, who are in constant contact with patients in hospitals, are too liable to overlook this subject. Clean beds, white coverlets, clean floors, clean walls, and well-dressed nurses do not mean cleanliness in the sense meant by Dr. Wyman; nor does the success of the treatment of the patient in the hospital turn wholly on the surgeon's ability to manipulate the knife or the doctor's power to write an elegant prescription. If the sanitary condition of the hospital is not looked after, you may depend upon it that, where there is an open wound, there will be bad results. I have been engaged in the care of hospitals a good many years, and am deeply interested in this subject.

Dr. BRAYTON, Indiana.— I suppose it is out of courtesy to the profession in our city that I have been invited to speak upon the subject-matter of Dr. Wyman's paper. I may say that it is not because these things are not appreciated among the two hundred physicians of our city that they are not here to-day; but it is because they are about their daily work. We have here a hospital that has undergone a revolution since the new theories of the treatment of diseases have been disseminated among us. The old government barracks have been swept away, and new buildings put up. Year after year in this very room our State Medical Society has fought and worked between the germists and the anti-germists, between those who believe that cleanliness is next to godliness and those who believe that a clean exterior — a whited sepulchre — is cleanliness. Many and many a time, when papers have been read here upon these subjects, we have seen signs on the faces of many that they did not accept our notions. I believe in the germ theory; but there are others who said, This is all false: there is no floating matter in the air which is injurious. When the germs are destroyed, dirt is no longer dirt: the danger is in the germs. Many substances dried and germ-proof, would be as good for dressing operations as the finely prepared articles we use to-day. I have seen amputations of the elbow joint and of the shoulder joint cured and sent out into the street in fifteen days. These are things that we can demonstrate. Cleanliness — that is, the destruction of the germs — has opened a new era in surgery. I admire the paper. It was simple, direct, plain, insisting upon cleanliness, the destruction of germs by different means,— by heat, by corrosive sublimate, by ironing. Ironing is an admirable method of destroying germs. This subject is of interest to the people. The doctor is awake. The Indiana Health Report for last year states that there were only twenty deaths from puerperal septicæmia. I presume two or three hundred died from that, but it is ascribed to some other cause. The people are beginning to think. They hate a dirty doctor and a dirty hospital.

Monsignor BESSONIES, Vicar-General of Vincennes.— I have had long experience with sick people in hospitals. I agree with the gentleman about the necessity for cleanliness. There is another very important matter. The doctors who go to hospitals should be cheerful. Some doctors go to the hospitals and go around with a long face. The attendants, too, should be cheerful, or the patients will be discouraged.

Mr. MCCULLOCH.— Next year we will have a paper on hospital cheerfulness.

Monsignor BESSONIES.— When I was a young man, I was sick in Paris, and I think I never saw a man so cheerful and so nice as the doctor was. He was kind to all the patients. He encouraged them and helped them along. Our St. Vincent Hospital here has been built with a great deal of care. It is almost perfect. The managers consulted a great number of specialists in the country. It takes a

large number of people free, but those who can pay it lets pay. But when a man is sober and industrious, but poor and needs care and nursing, he should have an opportunity to receive these for a small amount.

In closing, Monsignor BESSONIES apologized for his broken English.

President MCCULLOCH said that those who had been fourteen years at work with the Monsignor fully understood the broken English for which he apologized, and knew that every word was kindness and every tone was love.

Mr. GILES.— I want to thank Dr. Wyman for his paper. It is a revelation to me. I have visited a great many hospitals in the last twenty years, and I have learned this morning for the first time that cleanliness is not hospital cleanliness. I want his paper to be published in plain type, and put into the hands of every hospital in the country as a handbook.

Dr. MOULTON.— I will make one suggestion. As I listened to the admirable paper, it occurred to me that individuals who do not understand this matter of the germ theory of disease might imagine that these germs could be shovelled up and dumped down. Of course, the doctor did not intend to convey any such impression ; but I think it would be well for the members who have not given this matter study to bear in mind that the germs that the doctor has been talking about are invisible. Because you cannot see dirt existing on the sheets, in the beds, and on the hands and under the finger-nails, the poison may exist there just the same. It is microscopic dirt that the doctor has been dealing with.

Dr. FLETCHER.— I have been connected with hospitals for thirty years. It was my fortune, or misfortune, to be a prisoner of war at Richmond in 1862, and to be detailed to take charge of the gangrene hospital at Rockets, where I served during the rest of my imprisonment. It was a hospital without any other means of support than a very thin diet, very little water, and nothing in the way of prevention of gangrene. There was a good woman in the city of Richmond, by the name of Louisa van Loo, afterwards appointed as postmistress by General Grant, who did a great deal for the hospital by furnishing pulverized charcoal to dress wounds. I remember that every prisoner brought in had gangrene ; and, if they did not die of it, they lost at least two or three limbs. They used to cut off the hand or foot at once, because they knew that otherwise, if gangrene once set in, the person died. We had to cut off legs and arms then to save life. Since then my hospital experience has taught me that we do not have to cut off legs and arms when an infectious disease commences, but that by cleanliness, good food, and good diet we can save life. There is something besides cleanliness needed. We must have something good for the patient to eat. He must be well nourished and well taken care of, though he must be clean also. There are two kinds of hospitals,— one general and one for the insane. Those who go to the

general hospital go only for a short time. Those who go to the insane hospital may go for months, for years. I would ask any one who ever visited a hospital for the insane if they ever smelled a ward when it has not seemed as if it had not been cleaned for a month or two. Fresh air, plenty of sunshine, plenty of water, are imperative needs in a hospital. If you have these three, you have the best disinfectants. It does not require a great deal of medical skill to use them. It was for that reason that Dr. Alonzo Clarke in 1849 put up a tent on the lawn for patients, just as we did in the army, and a larger proportion of patients got well than of those in the hospital. There must be cleanliness on the part of those who manage the hospital as well as in the hospital itself. No bed should ever be used with the same patient twice,— I do not care if the patient has been there but twenty-four hours. Excelsior is the best thing for mattresses. These mattresses should be burned as soon as the patient is removed, and no patient ever be allowed to occupy that bed again. This should be looked upon as a matter of economy. I am quite certain that I have seen diseases transferred from one patient to another from using the same mattress over again. This is poor economy. A woman who is used to good air and cleanliness can detect foul air in a hospital quicker than anybody else. She can smell. She can smell cigarettes and whiskey better than a man, and detect them sooner than any microscope could. She can tell if any ward is disinfected or not.

Mr. W. S. Rosenau.— I am not a physician, but I have the business charge of the Accident Hospital in Buffalo. Our hospital has been in existence upwards of four years. It is purely an emergency hospital, and the cases are surgical. We have treated something like two thousand cases in it. We have never had a death from septicæmia, and never a reamputation. The methods followed are almost distinctly those outlined by Dr. Wyman, though the hospital is in a building not constructed for hospital purposes. The walls are painted, and the floors were painted after the cracks were filled with putty. All cleaning is done by elbow power. The laundry work is all done by hand. All the garments are dried in a hot room and ironed thoroughly before they are used. I think the results at our hospital indicate clearly that keeping a hospital clean results in the saving of human life. We use no mattresses whatever in the institution. We use a simple pad, which can be boiled and ironed after each time it is used.

Dr. Bell, of Michigan, said it must be recognized that germs have more to do with the origin and production of diseases than any other factor that has before been recognized. Hospital management ought to receive more attention than it has done in the past. The Brooklyn hospital and the Johns Hopkins hospitals are excellent examples of well-managed institutions.

The Business Committee reported through the chairman, Dr. A. E. Elmore. The committee asked for further time to consider the

resolutions offered by Mr. Wines with reference to the International Conference, and recommended for adoption the resolution offered by Bishop Gillespie with reference to the study of penology (page 348). Adopted.

Mrs. J. M. FLOWER, of Chicago, president of the Woman's Auxiliary Committee of the Columbian Exposition, explained that the work of that committee related to work that belongs exclusively to ladies, such as training schools for nurses, kindergartens, etc. She invited the ladies to take an interest in the Conference that should be held in Chicago in 1893. There will be a training school for nurses in operation, and a temporary hospital under their charge, to take care of any cases of accident or sickness during the Exposition.

Dr. WARNER asked if there was any possibility of obtaining back reports of the Conference.

Mr. MCCULLOCH replied that it would be impossible to obtain reports of certain years unless they were reprinted.

Mr. SANBORN hoped that a few would be reprinted.

The discussion on hospitals was then resumed.

DISCUSSION ON HOSPITALS.

Mr. SANBORN.— I was glad to hear a reference made to the architectural annoyances in many of our hospital buildings. We have in Massachusetts, at Danvers, the costliest insane hospital we ever built. It was provided by architects and engineers with an elaborate apparatus for introducing fresh air and carrying out foul air. These plans were excellent on paper. They were submitted to experts and heartily approved, and they were pronounced by superintendents, enthusiastically, the best ever known. When the hospital was opened in 1878, and the system went into operation, it was discovered that, though in winter, when the fans were at work, the foul air could be forced out through the ducts, in summer, the foul air ducts being clogged with filth, the patients were supplied with air from these ducts, which then brought air in and did not carry it out. To some extent the sewage pipes from the water-closets served also to admit air. Instead of the promised downward draft, they had an upward draft. It was necessary, at much cost, to change all this. That was an experience which, I venture to say, has been repeated in various forms in every State where buildings have been constructed by architects without proper direction. I was glad to hear what was said of dust chutes. They are almost universal in hospitals on this grand plan; but, when their character is thoroughly understood, they will be reformed or abolished.

Dr. JONES, Tennessee.— Having had large experience in charge of

a hospital for the insane, and having had charge of the first hospital that was built for insane Negroes, I know something of the necessity for cleanliness. Nothing compensates for the want of an abundant supply of pure air and proper ventilation. Our hospital for the colored insane in Tennessee is well provided. It is made attractive with fountains and flowers. Everything is beautiful and pleasant. I am much gratified with the paper which has been read, and shall be glad to read it when it is printed.

Mr. WINES.— Closely connected with the hospital question is that of the training of nurses, which was so well discussed at Baltimore. I want to put upon record here a suggestion made to me by a Southern woman, born and bred in the South, who has had some hospital experience as a patient, and, of course, some experience in that relation with white trained nurses. It was her thought that there could be no better work for some charitable person to undertake than the establishment of a school for training colored women as nurses, in connection, perhaps, with some of the educational institutions for the colored race in the South, of which Nashville is the great centre. No person can be better fitted by nature for the intimate and tender relations of a nurse than a refined colored woman. There are many ladies, especially Southern ladies, who would much prefer the ministrations of a colored nurse. Colored women educated in these schools often find it difficult to secure any employment adapted to them. It is very desirable to open up to them a new field.

Mrs. FLOWER.— There is a training school for nurses for colored women in Chicago now.

Judge CALDWELL, Tennessee.— We are very proud in Nashville of the institutions of learning that we have for the colored population. I can call to my mind ten colored nurses in the city of Nashville who have no other occupation. They are trained nurses, trained by the physicians of the city. They are sought for more than any other people. They have engagements ahead for months and months. They are a wise set of people. Some of them are uneducated so far as literary education is concerned, but thoroughly educated so far as the sick-bed is concerned. I think that what has been suggested would be a step in the right line. I know the colored race. I have been raised with them. I have now at my home a colored woman who has been thirty-seven years— from her babyhood — in my own family. We would not do without her, and she would not do without us. She *could* not do without us, and we could not do without her.

Mr. MILLS.— Tell us what wages these nurses receive?

Judge CALDWELL.— From two to three dollars a day. They are specially adapted for this particular work on account of their tender nature and their peculiar circumstances of life.

Dr. JONES.— There is no place in the United States where colored people are provided for educationally as at Nashville. They have advantages that the white people do not possess. If, in addition to all the other departments, we could have such an institution as has

been suggested here, it would be the crowning institution of Nashville. As a professional man, I may assure you our people would prefer trained African nurses, other things being equal.

Mr. SANBORN.— Have you training schools for attendants for insane hospitals?

Dr. JONES.— No, sir.

Mr. SANBORN.— Would such a school apply to them?

Dr. JONES.— They would be received as nurses for acute cases in the home, but not as attendants in the ward.

Dr. SARAH M. CRAWFORD.— It has been my happy fortune to have charge of a training school where colored nurses were admitted on equal terms with white women, and they have gone out of the hospital and found remunerative employment, and given universal satisfaction.

Gen. BRINKERHOFF.— I wish there might be a training school for architects to learn ventilation. In connection with our State Board in Ohio, I have seen more ignorance in the matter of ventilation on the part of architects than in any other way. It seems to be the last thing they think of. I can think of but one institution which I could recommend to any one who wants to study ventilation. The entire atmosphere in Dr. Doren's institution at Columbus can be changed in eight minutes.

Mr. WINES.— There is one other institution where the whole air can be changed in a few minutes, and that is the penitentiary in Allegheny. That is very unique and successful.

Mr. CHASE, Chicago.— I used to be an architect before I went into charity work. I have seen beautiful plans for the construction of hospitals, insane asylums, and other institutions. But there is one building for which I have never seen a perfect plan, and that is a tenement house. The seeds of mental and physical disease are sown in the average tenement house. I have seen many a tenement house that had no water-closet or convenience of any kind. The people were herded together like cattle in our stock-yards. I have looked in vain upon the programme for a topic on tenement houses. I wonder if that has always been neglected. I believe we could do more to prevent physical and moral disease if we could give more attention to these crowded houses. I would suggest a committee on this subject, and have them bring plans for our notice.

Bishop GILLESPIE.— If you possibly can, in the new States, get your law so made that you will have the examination of all plans for poorhouses and jails. In our own State we have the examination of plans for insane asylums, but not the examination of plans for poorhouses and jails. It was thought that that would interfere with the county authorities.

Mr. MCCULLOCH.— No poorhouses or jails can be built in Indiana and Ohio until the plans have been approved by the Board of State Charities.

Mr. H. D. SMITH, of Plantville, Conn., said that he stood before the Conference as a victim of excessive ventilation,— that he had first

taken cold from the bad ventilation in the cars, and had added to it from the ill ventilation of the halls. He thought that there was great room for improvement in the ventilation of buildings of all kinds.

Mr. WEAVER, New York.— Within the last five years we have built a county house in Alleghany County under the supervision of the State Board of Charities. When they suggested that it should be built in cottage style, I as keeper objected to it; but, after it was built, I found it very convenient. And I want to say right here, if any one desires a plan of the house, I have a photograph that I will send free. I can recommend it.

After singing by the pupils from the Institution for the Blind, the Conference adjourned at 12 M.

ELEVENTH SESSION.

Monday night, May 18.

The Conference was called to order at eight o'clock, the President in the chair. The Business Committee reported through the chairman, Mr. Elmore, as follows: —

Mr. ELMORE.— Your committee, to whom was referred the resolution offered by Mrs. Spencer (page 330), have, after due consideration of the subject, instructed me to report that in their opinion it is not contemplated by this Conference to furnish topics for discussion or programmes for any other organization, and that said resolution be reported back to the Conference with the recommendation that its further discussion be indefinitely postponed.

Recommendation adopted.

Mr. ELMORE.— Your committee have also considered the following preamble and resolution: —

Whereas the placing of women on administrative Boards of Charities, and to co-operate with men in the management of charitable and reformatory institutions, does not obtain in all States,— therefore,

Resolved, That the success attained by such co-operation in States where women have been so placed inspires this Conference to recommend that other States follow the example, and that its influence be given to the appointment of women to co-operate with men in all charitable and reformatory work, especially in that where women and children are considered, in the supervision of the poor in almshouses, and as physicians in the female wards of insane hospitals.

We recommend that said resolution be adopted by the Conference.

Adopted.

Mr. ELMORE.— Your Committee on Resolutions, to whom was referred a preamble and resolution, presented by Dr. Rogers, have instructed me to report the same back to the Conference, together with a substitute for the resolution which Dr. Rogers presented your committee, and recommend that said preamble, resolution, and amendment be referred to the Committee on Organization.

The following is the substitute submitted to the committee: —

Resolved, That this Conference appoint a committee to report at the next Conference upon the intemperate use of alcoholic liquors in the adulterated state, — which is the present condition of a large proportion of such liquors used as a beverage by the people at the present time,— and to present what action should be taken in this matter; every action to be non-political, and the committee to consist of such numbers as the Conference deems wise.

It was so referred.

Mr. HENRY B. PIERCE, of Indianapolis, spoke for ten minutes on the Indianapolis Flower Mission. The mission was organized to bring flowers and comfort and cheer to the poor, and to maintain a training school for nurses. Flowers, fruit, and clothing are given away. The poor are visited from house to house, those who need it are taken to the hospital, and the hungry in soul are fed.

The topic of the day was then taken up, the report of the Committee on Charity Organization, Miss Hannah M. Todd, chairman. Miss Todd presided over the discussion. The report was read by Miss Todd (page 109). A paper entitled "The Relation of Charity Organization to Social Problems" was read by Mr. George D. Holt, of Minneapolis (page 118). The discussion was opened by Mr. N. S. Rosenau, of Buffalo.

DISCUSSION ON CHARITY ORGANIZATION.

Mr. ROSENAU.— Those of us who were alive at the time will remember that a certain English general by the name of Braddock once marched with a magnificent army against the French and Indians, and met defeat by guerilla warfare. If that same General Braddock should be raised up to-day, and should on the same field march against the French and Indians, guerilla warfare would be more of a success in exterminating the guerillas than in exterminating the English army. The trees and hiding-places have been cleared away. Civilization has replaced barren spots by populous cities, and the guerilla's occupation is gone. To-day the grand army of pauperism is marching to attack society. Centuries ago guerilla warfare succeeded in checking it, because there were chances for the guerillas

to protect themselves. To-day such warfare is a most lamentable failure. It is only the organized army that stands against the pauper. Isolated dealing with him is a lamentable failure. Those misguided communities which think that the organization of charities is not necessary are attempting in this isolated way to deal with the army of pauperism. There stands at their back a public official with the gatling gun of legislation in his hands, firing the hot shot of public outdoor relief into the faces of those whom he ought to be helping.

It is a very difficult thing to treat the general subject of Charity Organization in five minutes. I have been studying it for eight years, and I do not know anything about it yet; but I do know this,— that, so far as my experience has gone, charity organization, properly carried out, properly supported by any community, is what the boys call "a howling success." In my own city I think I may say, without any fear of contradiction, that in proportion to the population pauperism is fifty per cent. less than when we organized fourteen years ago. We had a population then less than that of Indianapolis, and our overseers of the poor disbursed of public money one hundred thousand dollars. We have now a population of 260,000, and last year our overseers of the poor disbursed of public money in outdoor relief less than fifty thousand dollars. The overseers of the poor did not come willingly to this reduction: they were forced to it by the exposure of fraudulent recipients of city aid; but, beyond that, we take to our credit the fact that we have made many people ashamed to accept public outdoor relief, and we have made many more too independent to need it. The principles of charity organization are undoubtedly well known in Indianapolis, but the results of charity organization indicate something new each year,— indicate that, if there is the social problem of poverty and pauperism (and undoubtedly there is), even in our new country, there is at least one effective way of battling with that problem. I have thought recently that there is danger in that personal intercourse with the poor which we charity organizationists are constantly trying to encourage. There is danger in it, because people will not recognize the fact that, in order many times to gratify a selfish desire of their own souls, they run great risk of hurting most seriously those whom they think they ought to benefit.

President McCulloch.— I am not a soldier, nor the son of a soldier. I hate war and the signs of war. The blare of the trumpet is a hateful sound to me. The images of war and the pictures of war and the picturesque presentation of charity from the side of war find no response from me whatever. I see no terrible army of pauperism, but a sorrowful crowd of men, women, and children. I differ in spirit, though not in method, from my friend Mr. Rosenau. I propose to speak of the spirit of charity organization. It is not a war against anybody. It is not an attack against any armed battalions. It is the spirit of love entering this world with the eye of pity and the voice of hope. It sees in men and women, despairing, disfigured as they may be, broken and bent, imbittered, sorrowful, sinful, and

criminal, simply fragments of humanity. They show the incompletenesses of men, the partial losses of life. It is, then, simply a question of organization, of the best method for the restoration of every one. And, if it asks you not to relieve, it is simply because it sees your relief is not wise. It is your own selfishness, and not your love, that prompts the gift,— selfishness because you give ten cents instead of an hour of your time. It is given from indifference, because you do not ask how you may *best* help. Therefore, I say, we look upon men, women, and children whom we call paupers, or now distinguish into paupers and poor, pitifully, but hopefully; for not one but may be brought back by persistent effort.

Douglas Jerrold's advice to those about to get married is, "Don't." My advice to you who are about to start a Charity Organization Society would be, "Don't." Don't, unless you know that you have entered upon a work which is without end. Don't, unless you expect to be enlisted in it without hope of recall. Don't, unless you know you are going to carry upon your own heart the agonies, sorrows, and failures of men and women and children. Don't, unless you are ready for ten years of solid service. If you are ready for ten years of solid service, of sowing the seed without expecting to see much harvest, if you are ready to work passionately, scientifically, lovingly,— then take it up. Read Mrs. Lowell's paper about Charity Organization Societies in small cities. That may help you. It is no occasion for pride to a city like Buffalo that it pays so much less money for outdoor poor relief; but it may take immense pride in its Emergency Hospital and in the other things which have grown out of the Charity Organization Society work so nobly administered by Mr. Rosenau. I appeal from that presentation of charity organization work as mere investigation to charity organization work as lifting mankind. The methods may vary: the principles never vary. They never lose hope, never lose patience. The lower man has sunk, the farther you have to reach, the more patiently you must work. Always try again. It is never too late. There is always a chance for a man or a woman. All the beautiful work of that circle of thirty-five charities in this city draw a circle like the beautiful circle which Richelieu said the Catholic Church drew about the penitent girl,— a circle of love and hope.

Rev. C. W. Wendte, Oakland, Cal.—Madame Chairman and friends, I have attended many of these Conferences; but I have rarely spoken, because I felt that the time was more profitably spent in listening. I am much interested in the subject of charity organizations, and have done what an overworked city minister can in this direction. I am glad to bear testimony to the efficacy, importance, and value of this system of charity. Years ago, in Rome, I stepped into a bookseller's shop, and there came in an old weather-beaten crone, who mumbled a few words. She then went to a table near by on which was spread a lot of centesimi, each worth about a third of a cent. She took one centesimo, and put it into her capacious

pocket, and went out. In about three or four minutes there came a man with sheepskin pelisse and dirty leggings, mumbling out a blessing, and, in the absence of the proprietor in the back part of the store, helped himself to one centesimo, and strode away. That was repeated five or six times. Finally, I asked the meaning of it. The proprietor said that they were so overrun with beggars that he made a compact with them. He told them that, if they would district the city and assign one day in the week for a distribution of this sort, he would be ready to meet them; and this was the day in which he was doing that. All the beggars of that part of the city, to the number of fifty or sixty, were in the habit of coming for this money. He left it in a pile on the table. They never took more than their due; and, having taken that, off they walked. "Is that not a very wrong way?" I asked. "I do not know," replied the proprietor: "we have been brought up with the belief that the blessing of God is on almsgiving." What a contrast is that method to the system set forth by the speakers and papers this evening,— one tending to ameliorate immediate destitution and misery, the other seeking to put an end to destitution and misery; one aiming only at temporary relief, the other working on long lines for self-support and the relief of the community from pauperism and beggary! The modern system seeks to put an end to this evil of pauperism by striking at the root. And now arises a new danger; and that is, that the advocates of this new system shall become unmindful of the well-spring and source of all human charitable effort, and contemptuous of that spirit which animated the men and women of the old times. To-day, as in olden time, faith must remain the animating, quickening source of hope. I rejoice at the remarks of the last speaker, because I feel we are in danger of emphasizing too much all imposture and frauds, and not enough the holy spirit of love. Sir Kenneth Digby tells us of a very curious and wonderful experiment which he saw an Arabian magician perform. He brought into the circle a potted plant, green and beautiful, and, setting it down, went through various incantations until eventually there was before him a beautiful and glowing rose. Even so it is in our charity organization work. There, also, love — warm, earnest human love — is the magician that calls forth new life and beauty. Approach men and women with this tender sentiment. Fulfil to them kindly offices of divine manifestation. Make yourselves the incarnate providence of God to humanity. Breathe over them, pray over them, and you will find them little by little rising out of the ashes of sensuousness and growing into a recovered manhood and womanhood. That is the aim of the Charity Organization Society. That is our hope, our inspiration, and our belief,— that the blessing of God is upon our work.

Mrs. JACOBS, Colorado.— Charity organization means heart-strengthening. It is the sympathy that we bring into these crushed homes that is needed. Let me give you an illustration of what friendly visiting means. I was called one evening suddenly to a house where a mother was dying. I went immediately. I found the mother in the

last throes of death, with a little one just born. The doctor was present, and said, "Help me to save her if you can." Some poor neighbors came in, and we went to work; but it was too late. She tried to look upon her little ones, but her eyes were soon closed n death. Seven living children were left, and in the cradle the new-born baby. Four of the little boys lay sleeping, unconscious of their loss, on one bed in the little room. A little girl of seven could only cry, "Mamma, mamma!" A little girl of twelve went for her father to say that the mother was dying. What could we do for them all? We performed the last rites for the poor woman. We carried the baby to a neighbor's house, where the little life fluttered and then passed to its mother. We scattered the other children into different homes until we could find what was best to be done. Some we sent to relatives, until at last all the family were provided for; but how many hours of labor and thought it consumed! You who think it is an easy task to be a friendly visitor are very much mistaken. It takes your life-blood away from you, but it gives you heart culture.

Mrs. JACOBS closed by saying she hoped that, when the Conference came to Denver, they would be able to show that much good had been accomplished in Colorado.

Judge FOLLETT, Ohio.— There was one expression in the report that I wish to refer to. I learned a little about the principles of charity organization some years ago by a book of Mr. Gurteen. What is the principle of charity organization? It is finding out the facts in regard to the destitute. After the facts are found, other steps may be taken, as they have been in Cleveland, Buffalo, and Brooklyn. Not only does charity organization stop the promiscuous throwing away of thousands of dollars in a harmful way, but it creates the saying, "Not alms, but a friend." It takes one to the home. We have it in our little town. They have tried to make arrangements for the different bodies of Christians to take care of their own poor. Where want is found, that want is brought to the attention of the public, and the family is cared for. There must be method exercised in ascertaining the facts. This is what I understand by charity organization,— finding out the facts and ministering to the needs of the needy.

Mr. WILLIAM G. STEELE, Oregon.— A Charity Organization Society was started two years ago in our little city of Portland on the Pacific Coast. It has worked successfully from the first. In the beginning there were two or three societies that would not work with us. Now we have all denominations. We have reduced the work to a system; but, when we see the work that has been done in other cities, we feel that we are far behind. We have an excellent board, composed of a number of leading business men and of the leading ministers of the city. We have a good president and secretary, and are trying to do good work. We are wonderfully interested in this Conference of Charities and Correction, and two years ago had the pleasure of meeting some of the delegates in our city after their meeting in

San Francisco. The establishment of a State Board of Charities was partially the result of their visit. I hope we may some time welcome the whole Conference in Portland.

Mr. CHARLES D. KELLOGG, New York.— The most encouraging item in the report of this committee is the increased appreciation, the country over, of charity organization methods and principles. There are societies often springing up here and there which have not announced themselves r affiliated themselves with the general circle of Charity Organization Societies, but which are working upon our lines. If these were all to report themselves, I think that instead of 82 the number would run up to more than 100, operating under advanced conceptions of the nature of true charity, and with wiser views of the administration of charitable relief. This growth of charity organization principles, which seems to be in the air, is one of the most inspiriting facts to those who labor for their spread. Charity organization has at least stimulated the introduction of the co-operative element into charity, and opened the eyes of communities, all over the English-speaking world, to the evils of unregulated and capricious relief. It has also started the spirit of inquiry into the science of beneficence in institutions for higher education, and thus prepared the way for a future generation of philanthropists trained to deal with these problems along the lines of experience and induction, as in other departments of scientific study.

Our hold upon public favor in New York is shown by the fact that there has been presented to the Charity Organization Society and three other associations jointly, by a generous citizen of our city, a United Charities Building, to cost not less than half a million of dollars, which shall gather under one roof as many benevolent agencies as practicable, in order to promote the efficiency and economy of the whole local system of charity.

Perhaps the most marked success that we have had in New York for the past year in addition to this has been in the work of what we call our Penny Provident Fund. We have a system of savings by means of stamps similar to post-office stamps, ranging in value from one cent to fifty cents, which the savers may buy at convenient places and affix to a card which they carry in their pockets,— a process requiring but a few minutes of time, at a place convenient to their home or work. We propose to make it as easy to save the pennies and nickels as to spend them. It costs a laboring man half a day of time and a long distance of travel to make a deposit in one of our large savings-banks; and the trouble deters many from beginning to save. We have now about 120 stations where our stamps are sold, nearly 20,000 depositors, and deposits amounting to some $10,000. We are making it not only possible, but easy, for people to begin to be capitalists. We propose to graduate our depositors into savings-banks as rapidly as possible; and from a single station, which was planted for us at the front door of one of our newer savings-banks, we graduated in six months 480 holders of our stamp-cards into depositors in the savings-bank.

The most discouraging experience suggested by the report has been the cessation of the Charity Organization Society which started so excellently, and with so much hopefulness, a few years since in Chicago. I would be glad if Mr. Johnson could be called upon to tell us the causes of that failure.

Mr. ALEXANDER JOHNSON.— In answer to Mr. Kellogg's question, I would say that the Charity Organization Society of Chicago was not a failure. It was a decided and popular success, as measured either by its results in the work it was given to do or by that coarse yet positive test of popularity, a constant and growing financial support. The society was not abandoned: it was amalgamated with an old and at one time immensely popular and useful Relief Society, which still commanded the support of the best business men of the city. The joint Board of Directors pledged themselves, in a very positive and public manner, to carry on all the useful activities of the Charity Organization Society. We may very properly ask some of our friends from Chicago, who are acquainted with the work of both the old and the new societies, how well that pledge has been redeemed.

Miss RICHMOND, Baltimore.— Just before I left home our Charity Organization Society appointed a special committee to draw up measures for sanitary reform, and I am here for the purpose of getting you to help us. There is no use in wasting a moment of time on the question that bad sanitation is undoubtedly one cause of poverty. It causes bad health and moral disintegration. Those are two main causes of poverty. To come at once to remedies, it seems to me one aspect can be handled legally, another by education, and another by personal contact. I have seen one or two laws bearing on the subject that I should like to bring into Baltimore, one where mortuary records were tabulated. A man who wants a house finds out how many people have died there and whether the deaths were from the bad condition of the house. The poor cannot attend to these things, but the friendly visitor can examine the mortuary record. In Boston they have done a splendid thing in volunteer work. Through the co-operation of the Associated Charities and the Institute of Technology various districts in Boston have been personally visited, and the attention of the Board of Health has been called to individual places, and they have been reformed. There is another point to be noticed,— the importance of securing the co-operation of Boards of Health. While we do practical work, we commend ourselves to the best thought of the country. It has been said that the destruction of the poor is their poverty: a part of their destruction is their prejudice. There are good laws in New York, in Massachusetts, and elsewhere; but they are hard to enforce, because the poor themselves dodge them at every point. They are not in sympathy with sanitary reform. You must secure their sympathy by going to them individually and arguing with them, and so overcoming their prejudices. There is work enough for the friendly visitor to do.

Mr. APPEL, Denver, said that he thought the best investment that any Charity Organization Society could make would be to employ a man, like Mr. McCulloch, to go to the people and explain the principles of charity organization, and wake the people up to their importance. They had tried it in Denver, and it had been worth eighty thousand dollars to them. They would not have had a State Board of Charities in Colorado yet but for the Charity Organization Society. Wherever a Charity Organization Society is started, it helps to leaven the community with its principles.

Mr. MCCULLOCH said that if groups of those things which had been established through the influence of charity organization could be arranged, such as day nurseries, kindergartens, hospitals, training schools for nurses, etc., it would show how this work reaches out in every direction, and it would be seen that charity organization is only a translation of the word "helpfulness."

Adjourned at 10.30. P.M.

TWELFTH SESSION.

Tuesday morning, May 19.

The Conference was called to order by the President at 10 A.M. Prayer was offered. The report from Montana was read by Mr. Johnson.

The President said that he wished to make several suggestions for the better organization of the Conference: —

1. I suggest, then, that the Executive Committee, now numbering five, be enlarged to include the President of the existing Conference, who shall be *ex-officio* president of the committee, and the Presidents of former Conferences.

The duties of this committee would be, in addition to the usual consultation with the President, to perfect the organization, especially aiming to select fit persons to act as Corresponding Secretaries of States, and to arrange and select and to present to the Committee on Organization of the Conference such subjects as they may think should be brought forward.

2. I suggest that in States having State Boards the secretaries of such Boards be made Corresponding Secretaries of States.

3. That the secretaries of State Boards be empowered to formulate a plan for uniform statistics and registration of dependent, defective, and delinquents in each State on the basis of the plan suggested by myself, and that they report to the Executive Committee, who shall then endeavor to secure in States not having State Boards, from the Corresponding Secretaries, an adoption of the plan and method recommended.

4. That the census tables of 1890 be incorporated in the Proceedings of each Conference, to serve as a basis of comparison and change, and that it be the duty of the Committee on States to report on the basis of their tables the changes in population, management, etc., which take place.

The following committee was announced: —

Committee on Credentials: Mrs. J. S. Spear, Jr., California; Mrs. J. S. Sperry, Colorado; Henry D. Smith, Connecticut; Amos F. Warner, District of Columbia; M. A. T. Clark, Delaware; Rev. Doremus Scudder, Illinois; Mrs. Edna M. Crosby, Iowa; Rev. J. L. Leucht, Louisiana; Robert J. Kirkwood, Maryland; Laban Pratt, Massachusetts; James A. Post, Michigan; George D. Holt, Minnesota; Henry Hopkins, Missouri; Miss Judith J. Mendenhall, North Carolina; Ira Otterson, New Jersey; Mrs. John Davenport, New York; G. Harmount, Ohio; Homer Folks, Pennsylvania; James A. Nutting, Rhode Island; J. M. Jordan, Tennessee; J. Q. Adams, Wisconsin.

Rabbi Berkowitz.— It does my heart good to attend this Conference and to be counted in with you all. I have considered it a great privilege, with priests and laymen, with bishops and pastors, with Christians and Jews, to meet in session; and I am glad this morning, as the teacher of the Israelites, to lend my voice and my influence to this work. The fact that we care for each other as we never did before in the course of the world's history is what gives me so much joy and inspiration. It seems to me that the magnificent dream of the old Hebrew prophets is realized as it never was before. And, because I feel satisfied, from my observations and from what I have heard, that this assemblage is high-minded and as broad as the land in its humanitarian impulses, I make bold to call your attention to a class of suffering people who have not received any consideration as yet in your sessions. You cannot open a daily paper anywhere without hearing something about the suffering of those persecuted Jews of Russia and Roumania whose cry goes out to the civilized world for help, and whose cry reaches to this land of liberty, asking that you as human beings shall give answer to their cry. The task has been imposed upon the Hebrews of the United States to consider the sad condition of these exiles who are flocking by the thousands to these shores, coming from the most wretched surroundings and denied every human privilege. We are confronted with the duty of Americanizing these people, of giving them the opportunities which we enjoy, and of rearing their children under American influences. All that they ask is a chance for self-help. They have willing hands and good hearts despite their condition and their sufferings; and I ask that a sentiment in their behalf may go out from this Conference, that we as Americans consider their condition and are willing to aid

them. The great heart of the American people has been kindly. Public meetings have been held in which resolutions have been passed. But I know that the National Conference of Charities and Correction is the very heart of American charity, that it embodies the representative of charity from all over the land; and, therefore, I ask of you this expression of sentiment, that you may give the Hebrews of the land the moral support of this Conference.

A long resolution in behalf of the Russian Jews was offered by Rabbi Berkowitz, and referred to the Business Committee.

The topic for the day, the report of the Committee on State Boards of Charities, was then taken up. The report was read by Judge M. D. Follett, chairman (p. 154).

A paper was read by Mr. J. R. Elder, of Indiana, on "A Board of State Charities: How it looks to a New Member."

DISCUSSION ON STATE BOARDS.

Dr. A. J. Thomas, Indiana, of the Southern Hospital for the Insane.— I wish to speak of two or three points with reference to the work of our State Board of Charities. I have been connected with the public institutions of Indiana and with the insane hospitals of the State for twelve years. Ten years I spent in opposing the establishment of a State Board of Charities, partly from ignorance, partly from prejudice. I feared there would be discord and inharmonious action between the superintendents of institutions and the State Board of Charities; but I am glad to say that my opinion has entirely changed since I have been in connection with our State Board for the past two years. I have had frequent opportunities to find out about its working from intercourse with some members of the Board and especially with the secretary, who have visited our institution. I am sure that he has never made a visit there when I have not been able to learn something from him that was beneficial to that institution. I consider the law which was passed by our General Assembly in 1889 the best law ever passed in that direction by the State. There has no evil come from it, but very much good,— not only good to such institutions as that over which I preside, but to those of a lower order, poorhouses, jails, and other places. I indorse very cordially what Mr. Elder had to say about our secretary, and I think those persons deserve a good deal of credit who discovered him. I believe that there are a great many men in the State of Indiana, like myself, who opposed the bill from a lack of knowledge; but I think public sentiment has changed very largely in its favor. I repeat that I heartily indorse the work of the Board, and so long as I am a public servant shall give it my cordial co-operation.

Rev. Myron J. Reed, of Denver, was asked to say a word from Colorado.

Mr. REED.— We have very little to say from Colorado. We agitated the question of a Board of Public Charities at our last legislature. The bill was passed creating a Board of Charities for the State. We are indebted to the labor of three or four men for the passage of the bill. We have met once together, and are partially organized. All our work lies before us. There is a good deal to be done. Colorado is a new State: everything is making. It is our intention that everything shall go right.

Rev. C. W. WENDTE, California.— Oregon has a most excellent law for a State Board of Charities. They have not yet organized, but will do so shortly. You may depend upon it that Oregon will not fall behind the other States.

Prof. J. W. JENCKES, Indiana.— The work of a teacher of social science in one of the State universities may be of value in spreading the sentiment in favor of State Boards of Charities. In my own State here I want to say a word as to what the Board has done for my own special work. Secretary Johnson, very soon after he came here, was able to furnish me with good material to give to my students to encourage them in their work. He gave me special suggestions as to the work they might do that I found very valuable. He called my attention to the poorhouses and jails in my own county. I asked some of my students to go and visit them and report to the class. One of the young men went out, and came back and made his report. In that he said that he had visited the poorhouse and been through all the rooms, although the matron evidently did not wish it. He went through the kitchen and dining-room. "The result to me personally," said he, "was that I could not sleep the next night. I had no idea that things could be so horrible as I found them there." He told the class in detail what he had seen. Other members of the class went out. The young men did what they could in talking to the people of Bloomington with reference to the arrangement of the poorhouse. I do not know that it was the result of this visit, but there has been a change made in the arrangement. The board of county commissioners reached the opinion that it would not do any longer to let the management of the poor to the lowest bidder, and the present management is much better than before. Still further, I was enabled to persuade the members of my class to take the expense of a trip to Indiana to visit the insane hospital, and they met with a most hearty reception, and were shown fully and carefully what the management of the institution here is. Those who know what an influence politics has had in the past with reference to public institutions will be gratified to know the change that has taken place, and that politics does not cripple the management of institutions, as formerly. The aid that I as a teacher of social science have received from the secretary of the Board of Charities is very great indeed, and I feel that teachers in general of the subject will always receive most cordial help from such boards and their secretaries everywhere. It may be that we overestimate our influ-

ence, but we feel that our object in teaching social science is to create public sentiment in favor of intelligent control of the delinquent and dependent classes everywhere. And that public sentiment is a necessity with reference to legislation.

Rev. W. C. WILLSON, North Carolina.— Our State Board of Charities was established in 1868. That is a long time ago. But it was established at a time when we were not in condition to do much. We had so many things pressing upon us that we could not carry out the law. We were like an old colored man down South, who was once going along without any clothes on his back, but a big side of bacon across it. A man who met him said to him: "Look here, uncle, what does that mean? Why don't you get yourself some clothes to put on your back?" "Well, boss," he said, "I will tell you about dat. My back gives me credit, but my stomach has to have de cash down." Things were pressing upon us. The charity work gave us credit, but the other things had to have cash down. Now we are getting on our feet a little. It was a pretty fair law that was passed in 1868. It was copied from those States that had enacted this law before we did. It was introduced at too early a date. The harness did not fit. We were just like a poor horse that could hardly stand up with a set of fine harness on him. Our harness was all right, but we could not pull in our weak condition. The legislature made no appropriation for the expense of carrying the law out, and we were like a mill built on a hill without engine or water. We went into innocuous desuetude, I reckon. The first report came out in 1870, and that lasted until 1890, when, Rip Van Winkle like, we waked up. We are awake now, and we are going to rub our eyes and are going right along this line. We are making some progress down in the old North State. Our legislature has already made some provision for paying the expenses of a Board of Charities, and in the next session we are going to get what we need. Do not scold us, but encourage us. We are a little slow, but North Carolina will get on her feet by and by; and, when she does, there will be tar enough on them to make her stay there.

Mr. ELMORE, Wisconsin.— We from Wisconsin have had a good deal of commiseration from several gentlemen; because, they say, we are wiped out of existence. This is a mistake. Wisconsin has two boards,—a board of supervision, which replaced the local boards of trustees of the seven State institutions, and a State Board of Charities. The State Board of Charities visits three hundred and thirty institutions of all kinds, including the State institutions. Now last fall we had a cyclone in Wisconsin, and the party that was then in power is in power no longer; but, if you think the Democrats are going to sweep us all out, or go back of the work we have done, you are mistaken. They will do nothing of the kind. We will have six men on the new Board to take the place of the old, and none of them will be nine spots. They will all be either high or low, or count something for game. They will be men of whom this Conference will

be proud. The *personnel* of the Board is nothing: the principle is everything. They have not yet been appointed. None of us expect to be on the Board. I said to the governor, "I want nothing personal; but I ask in behalf of the unfortunate insane, do not put any man on the Board, who lives in a county where they have a county insane asylum, who has never visited it. There are lots of such men making applications for that position." He said, "I will not do it." Wisconsin is all right, and her institutions are all right, but they are not good enough for Ohio; and I begin to feel like the man who said that he once thought he would like to go to heaven, but he had now changed his mind. "What is the matter?" he was asked. "Why," he said, "I think now I'd rather go to Ohio."

Mr. H. H. HART, Minnesota.— You will perhaps be interested to know something about the South Dakota Board. The legislature a year ago last winter, soon after the organization of the State, established the State Board. It is like that of Kansas and Rhode Island. Its functions are different from the Board of this State and most existing Boards, in the fact that it is not an advisory board, but has absolute control. I understand that they have some excellent men on it, and it is hoped that it will be very efficient. I think that next year we shall have a representative from that State. The State of South Dakota is under great difficulties on account of deficient crops for the past few years; but it is a good State and organized on an excellent basis, and will come out all right. We are anxious that it should be encouraged to take hold of the work of this Conference.

State Boards of Charities have often come to grief in trying to work too fast. You must have patience, you must take time. By working three or four years, some important reform may be accomplished which, if forced, would create opposition. Often it happens that the opposition that always arises in one form or another is really turned to the advantage of the work. Two years ago some of the State institutions felt aggrieved at criticisms we had made, and opposed us, and came out in a public document criticising us. We kept still, and pursued our usual course. This year I had a letter from the secretary of that Board saying they had decided to make no estimates for current expenses this year, but they relied entirely upon us to take care of their interests, which we did in a proper way. This winter a bill was introduced for the abolishing of our Board. It was referred to the Committee on Public Accounts and Expenditures. It was reported back with a recommendation for its passage. The legislature was not satisfied, and referred the bill back. The committee made an investigation, found out what we were doing, sent their clerk to examine our books and records, and made a report to the House of Representatives commending in the highest terms the work of the Board, and recommending that the State university and the normal schools be put under the State Board of Corrections and Charities, or in some other way be brought under a system similar to that which we had inaugurated. So this assault strengthened us, and made our work better known in the State.

Mr. WRIGHT.— The State Board of Charities in Wisconsin is twenty-one years old. Mr. Giles and Mr. Elmore are twenty-one years old in this work, and it is admirable work that they have done. Whatever may happen in the future, I believe the work will go on as well as before. They have done good faithful work in the past. The county poorhouses have received a much larger degree of attention than has been given by most State Boards in other States. As a consequence, they have been greatly improved, until I think there is not one poorhouse which is not cleanly. I do not know whether any other State can say as much.

Mr. NUTTING, Rhode Island.— Yes, we can say that.

Mr. WRIGHT.— How many counties have you?

Mr. NUTTING.— Four.

Mr. WRIGHT.— We have eighty odd counties and fifty poorhouses. We have no county poorhouses in which any poor person is living who should not be there, except in Milwaukee. That cannot often be said. We have none of those scandals in regard to the birth of children in poorhouses formerly found in States where there is no such careful supervision. We have not been able to do much to the county jails. The sheriffs are changed every two years by the constitution of the State. They are paid by fees. There is no power that can control the sheriff except removal by the governor for gross abuses. As a rule, they go in for the sake of making money, and do as little as possible. But we have done this. We have secured that new jails shall be built upon the Ohio plan of separation of prisoners. For the last five years every new jail has been built after that plan. We have prepared a set of rules for sheriffs, by which the jails are largely governed, greatly improving the management of them. We have been able to secure a reasonable degree of cleanliness.

Mr. ELMORE.— Tell them that there is not a single insane person in the State who has not a good place, and that there is room for one hundred more.

Mr. WRIGHT.— The State institutions have been greatly improved also.

Bishop GILLESPIE, declining to take the platform, remarked: Perhaps I am not in very good temper this morning, and, when I am not, I always speak very loud. Some men use strong words when they are mad. I find it better to use a strong voice. You will ask the meaning of this very mystical remark. I will tell you. In the early days of the present legislature of Michigan two bills were introduced to abolish the State Board of Charities. Those bills are still unacted upon. Last evening, as I was listening to that most touching description of the dying mother, which I shall never forget, I received a telegram that on this day the committee of the House of Representatives would present a report which would recommend that the State Board be relieved from visiting poorhouses and jails, and that, instead of a grant of $5,000 a year, it should be reduced to $3,000, and the

secretary should receive only $1,000. I do not say that this is a fact accomplished. I will not think that a State that has an overflowing treasury, a State that is rich in its grains, in its fruits, and is rich beneath the earth in its mines, that is rich in the heavens above, in the showers that fall, and in the winds that blow,— I will not think that such a State would submit to such meanness. I will not believe that our State does not value the services rendered by our Board, nor that the State will allow such a man as our secretary, Mr. Storrs,— a man of wide intelligence, of great energy, and a Christian heart,— to do his work for any such salary; that it would give him no more than an unskilled clerk in any mercantile houses would receive. There is always more or less opposition to these Boards of Charities. I presume that the legislature never meets that some representative or senator does not do something toward getting rid of this Board. I observe in the remarks made here with reference to State Boards a sort of undertone of apprehension, even in those who speak with most satisfaction of what the Boards accomplish,— a feeling that, while the legislature sits, there is but a step between them and death.

Mrs. SPENCER, of Terre Haute, spoke of the work that had been done in the last thirty years in connection with the Ladies' Aid Society of that place.

Mr. NUTTING, of Rhode Island, spoke of the State Board of Rhode Island. It is absolutely non-partisan. The secretary is the only man who receives pay. There is no question of politics. This Board has absolute control of the State institutions. It is supreme. If a warden is to be appointed, no one need be consulted outside of the Board. The salary of each individual is determined, and the only thing the legislature has to do is to make an appropriation for it when it is asked for.

The report of the Committee on Organization was presented, and the officers and committees recommended were unanimously elected. (See pages ix–xii.)

The following report was made by the chairman of a sub-committee of the Committee on Organization: —

Your Committee on Sectional Meetings respectfully present the following report: —

In order to give more time and more favorable opportunity also for discussions, they suggest that the meetings of the next National Conference be divided so as to include general and special meetings. That, as a tentative step, the Conference be divided as follows: general meetings to be held at each evening session and at two of the morning sessions, which, excluding the evenings of Reception and the Farewell, will give seven general sessions; these to be occupied, the mornings by subjects in which the whole Conference is, or ought to be, interested, — *e.g.*, Reports from States and State Boards of Char-

ities; the evenings with subjects in which it is known the local delegates are specially interested,—*e.g.*, Co-operation of Women, Charity Organization, Reform Schools, Kindergarten Work, and Placing Children, and Preventive and Defensive Measures against Crime and Pauperism; at the remaining four sessions and on four of the six available afternoons, special meetings to be held, two meetings, simultaneously. This will allow for sixteen special sessions of two hours each, which should be occupied in practical discussions under the chairmanship of the chairman of appropriate committees, and should be divided between the committees so, as far as possible, to avoid conflict.

It would be expected that the special meetings would be largely technical and of more interest to the specialists and officers than to the general public; yet many of the chairmen would certainly arrange programmes sufficiently attractive to compel large audiences.

The division of the special meetings should be something as follows:—

Charity Organization,	3
Reform Schools,	3
Child Problem,	3
Insanity,	2
Feeble-minded in Colonies,	1
Institution Book-keeping and Statistics,	1
Construction and Management of Institutions, Almshouses, and Hospitals,	2
Immigration and Interstate Migration,	1

At the general meetings a prearranged programme would, we think, be advisable. At the special meetings the greatest freedom should be given the chairman to conduct the meeting as he or she thinks best; but the opportunity for every one to speak his mind should be carefully embraced.

In those cases in which we suggest general and special meetings on the same or similar topics, the general should universally precede the special. It may be necessary to appoint chairmen of sections separate from chairmen of committees in some cases; but in almost every case the sectionals can properly come under the usual committees.

In the matter of reports it is suggested that the volume be increased to 500 pages, of which 150 should be for special meetings, and that the chairmen of committees be allotted a definite number of pages for the report of the special meetings, which reports should not be verbatim, but should be brief, crisp, and pointed; that no paper presented at the specials be allowed over ten minutes in length, and that only one paper be printed from each special meeting, and that it be condensed to three pages of the record, making forty-eight (48) pages of papers and one hundred and two of discussions at specials. In printing the reports of the special meetings, the discussions should follow the papers. The programmes of the special

meetings should be designed with as much care as those for the general meetings, and should be printed with the rest.

Your committee confidently believe that, if this plan be adopted, many people who have come to the Conference once only, and thereafter stayed away because it was not a sufficiently profitable meeting to warrant the expenditure of time and money necessary, would be induced to come again. The delightful old friendly meeting of the early years, when every one had a chance to speak his mind, would come again in special meetings, and the National Conference would start on a new career of interest and usefulness.

These suggestions are not offered as perfect, and your committee would recommend that they (if approved) be turned over to the Executive Committee as a tentative sketch of what they may perhaps do.

On motion of Mr. Sanborn, the report of the sub-committee was referred to the Executive Committee for carrying out the provisions suggested in it.

On motion of General Brinkerhoff, it was unanimously voted by rising vote that the address of Rev. F. H. Wines in memory of Dr. A. G. Byers should be engrossed on vellum, and sent to his family.

On motion, it was voted that the chairmen of committees shall have authority to fill vacancies in case any person appointed shall refuse to serve or fail to respond.

Adjourned at 12.30 P.M.

THIRTEENTH SESSION.

Tuesday night, May 19.

The Conference met at 8 P.M., and was called to order by the President, after music. The report with reference to the exhibit of Charities and Correction to be made in Chicago at the Columbian Exposition in 1893 was made by Mr. Rosenau.

Mr. ROSENAU.— The exhibit will constitute a group of department L. of the Exposition, known as the department of Liberal Arts. It is expected that the various charitable and penal institutions of the world will make exhibits at their own expense. The cost of administration and such general expenses as are necessary will be borne by the Directory of the Exposition.

The Director-General has officially announced that he holds himself in readiness to appoint as head of this group any one whom the committee appointed by this Conference to have charge of the matter may suggest. The committee as appointed has divided itself into

two sub-committees, of each of which Mr. Wines is the chairman. The sub-committee on the exhibit consists of Messrs. Wines, Brinkerhoff, Craig, and Glenn. That on the International Conference is composed of Messrs. Wines, McCulloch, Elmore, Sanborn, Hart, and Storrs.

I almost fear to announce, because I feel so greatly the weight of responsibility that rests on me, that the committee has honored me by recommending my appointment as the head of the exhibit of Charities and Correction. I expect that the committee appointed to overlook my actions will afford me great assistance; but I hope that in the very arduous duty of creating an exhibit entirely unique in character I shall have not only the support and co-operation of that committee and of every member of this Conference, but of every person as well who takes the least interest in charitable and penal affairs.

The exhibit will be an object-lesson for the world. The public is too little intimate with the progress that has been made in the affairs which claim our particular interest. The work has been in the hands of a comparative few. Money is appropriated and contributed in enormous sums, but the people do not inquire into its use. Here will be an opportunity to thrust upon everybody a knowledge of what is doing in the world for the unfortunate and the criminal. And the meeting in convention of representatives of all civilized countries will serve to emphasize the effect of the exhibit. The exhibit will not only bring together illustrations of the materials and appliances and the work of the inmates of the various institutions of the United States, but also those of foreign countries. We shall be able to see where others are ahead of us, and where we may be ahead of them. We shall have an opportunity for comparative study, which must redound to our greatest good.

I am glad that, by the courtesy of those in charge of this meeting and of President McCulloch, I am allowed to express the hope that every person in this audience who can stimulate the interest of those who are engaged in charitable and correctional work of any nature in this exhibit will do so, in order that it may be made as complete and beneficial in its results as possible.

On motion of Mr. Sanborn, the following resolution was referred to the Business Committee: —

Resolved, That the funds of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, and those which may hereafter be contributed, shall be used only for the needs and purposes of this Conference, leaving the expenses of the International Conference of Charities to be met by funds specially raised for that purpose.

Referred to Committee on Resolutions.

Mr. H. H. Hart reported for the Committee on Organization.

Mr. HART.— The Committee on Organization held an adjourned meeting to complete its work, and to make a partial report, asking to omit the word "Penal" from the title of "Committee on Penal Reformatory Work"; also, to substitute the name of S. Edgar Osborn for that of Mrs. Lothrop on Committee on Feeble-minded.

Voted.

Mr. HART.— The committee recommends further that a committee of five be appointed to present at the next Conference rules of procedure based on resolutions adopted by the Conference heretofore, the unwritten laws on which the Conference has heretofore acted. The intention is not to adopt a constitution, but to formulate certain simple rules to be reported for such action as the Conference may take. It recommends that the committee consist of Messrs. Hart, Sanborn, Garrett, Elmore, and Letchworth.

Voted.

The subject for the day, the report of the Committee on Prisons, was then taken up (page 202).

In the absence of the chairman, General Brinkerhoff presided.

A paper by Charles A. Collins, of New York, on "The Leading Principles of Modern Prison Science," was read (page 214). A supplementary report was read by General Brinkerhoff (page 220).

DISCUSSION.

Mr. IRA OTTERSON, New Jersey.— I can heartily commend the paper just read. I believe in having educational as well as manual instruction given in reformatories. The inmates of reformatories should be kept fully occupied during their waking hours in instruction or recreation. There is great truth in the old adage, "Satan finds some mischief still for idle hands to do." This principle holds true with adults as well as children.

Mr. R. J. KIRKWOOD, Baltimore.— I also agree with the paper that has just been read. I think that nearly all our institutions can be improved in that direction. In reform schools there should be a better classification of inmates. The different classes should never be brought in contact. Each division should have its own schoolroom and work-rooms in the same building. There ought to be the same separation in our almshouses. Those who are simply unfortunate, who have been honest, should not be brought in contact with the dishonest poor.

Mr. LEVI S. FULTON, Cincinnati.— The subject of classification has been broached by my friend from Baltimore. It is a very diffi-

cult matter to classify properly in juvenile institutions. You may separate the older from the younger, the larger from the smaller, the good from the bad, and put them by themselves. But what are you going to do when they get outside? Are they going to be in separate classifications after they go out? If so, they may be classified in the institutions under the proper supervision of officers. My judgment is that the classification in institutions should be made in the same way that it is outside. The children should all be placed, in my estimation, in one class, and work from that to a better class by good conduct. I think about four classes could be made. I would have them promoted by their good behavior. When passing to the upper grades, they should have better diet, greater variety of food, better sleeping arrangements, better clothing, and be allowed more privileges. When for a certain length of time they have maintained their good standing, they should be passed to another grade higher. After they have maintained their standard long enough in the upper grade, they should be discharged on parole from the institution. When they get to the fourth grade, they may wear citizens' clothes, eat with the officers, be allowed to go to church and lectures, and to go outside by permission of the superintendent of the institution. If there is a director or a manager of a prison or reform school here who has not introduced technological training, I hope he will not rest another hour without it. I believe it is the best thing that was ever introduced into an institution. I believe I had the honor of introducing it first in New York, but the credit of the introduction is due to Mr. Letchworth. His connection with it will be found in my address at the Conference of 1888.

Mr. A. O. WRIGHT, Wisconsin.— It is stated in the paper that nothing has been done for county jails. The writer did not know probably that we have the right to condemn jails that are dangerous to health or life, or unsafe. That is, in Wisconsin. The State Board of Charities has condemned quite a number. The Board has also the power to see that the plans of new jails are right. They have compelled the erection of a number of jails on the Ohio plan. I have recently visited the jail in this county.

Mr. MCCULLOCH.— Please do not mention it!

Mr. WRIGHT.— I judge there is going to be a new jail here very soon, so I do not need to say anything about it except that, when it is constructed, it ought to be on the Ohio plan, providing for the separation of all the prisoners. The jail of Suffolk County, in Boston, is on a good plan. Last year I visited a jail in a Quaker county where the first prison reformatory work began in Pennsylvania. It is carried on as nearly as possible upon the plan of the Eastern Penitentiary. The prisoners are kept separate from one another. They have labor in their cells, and are allowed pay for overtime. The consequence is that there are no jails that I know of in the United States which have the good order and cheerfulness among the prisoners that are to be found in this jail. If we can provide healthy occupation and

the separation of prisoners in jails, we shall completely revolutionize them.

Gen. BRINKERHOFF.— I am as much the discoverer of that jail in Media, Pa., as Columbus was the discoverer of America! It beats Ohio jails. I want to draw attention to the Fassett law, and I want Judge Follett to speak on it.

Judge M. D. FOLLETT, Ohio.— I have been profoundly impressed with the thought of the help that we get from individuals about us. The Fassett law came to mature thought in the mind of a New York lawyer, and it is now enacted by the legislature in a permanent form. Think for a moment, and consider what that is and how it must be carried forward. Law is but an advance of public opinion and demand. The law, therefore, that has come in this way is not understood thoroughly without help and study even by the court. When the parole law was brought before the Supreme Court of Ohio, only one member of it had ever paid any attention to it, and all that one had got had come from his connection with this Conference and the study of the books that members of this Conference had referred to. I was the only member of the court who knew about it in the court consultation-room, and I induced my brethren to stop and consider questions that they themselves were disposed to scout at. What! the penitentiary of Ohio may have men, sentenced to it for so long, who can be taken out and sent to another county! What absurdity! But the lawyers studied the subject, and my brethren studied it; and the result was that Judge Johnson wrote the opinion, and you will find it in the Reports of the State of Ohio, page 629. I met some of the members of the Court of Appeal in New York, where they worked as we did. They will have trouble in having the law sustained unless they can bring to the attention of judges the principles and spirit of the law that they have enacted. New York does not understand that quite yet. Her lawyers do not understand that. I speak from a knowledge of Ohio and New York. Her judges must study the law; and I think they may be helped by your assistance, and that they will thank you for it.

Mr. HERBERT A. FORREST, Michigan.— As I listened to the reading of that paper, I was struck with the many things that the writer did not know; and one was that in 1877, fourteen years ago, the legislature of Michigan passed an act that prisoners should be separated in county jails, wherever it was possible to do so. Ohio did it twelve years later. By that same law the circuit judges had a right to sentence prisoners to county jails with hard labor. There was to be separation of juvenile offenders and those waiting trial from those who were serving sentence, and of those charged under civil law and those charged under criminal law. Of course, it has not been done in every case by any means. The sheriff says it is not possible in every county; and, therefore, they are not separated, except so far as juveniles are separated from adults. But in the year 1889 Michigan did pass another law, which provided for the indeterminate sentence.

We copied it from the Ohio law, but we find there is trouble in adjusting an Ohio law to the great State of Michigan.

Mr. NUTTING, Rhode Island.— When two prisoners occupy the same cell, that seems to me about the most vicious system possible, much more vicious than to work together under the supervision of guards. In our county jails there is not a woman in the same building nor within the same walls where the males are kept. They are in another institution a third of a mile away, under the care of women solely. We have not an institution, almshouse or otherwise, where women or children are confined where they come directly under the control of any male officer or even a male watchman. Even the superintendent cannot come into the institution but with the consent of the lady in charge. Somehow, I have not much faith in gymnasiums as moral reformatories, nor in Turkish baths. I have more faith in practical things. When a man comes to prison, it is my custom, after a few days, to have a private interview with him, no one being present except the warden. We act on the principle that we are not there to punish the man, but to help him. I always ask a Catholic if he would like to see the priest. Our aim is to apply all the spiritual and moral influences possible. I have vastly more faith in moral and spiritual influences in the reformation of prisoners than I have in massage.

Mr. CRAIG asked that Mr. Letchworth might be invited to take part in the discussion. Mr. Letchworth said that he should prefer to have Mr. Craig speak for New York.

Mr. CRAIG.— In New York we have the Catholic Protectory, with two thousand children. Then we have the Juvenile Asylum, with six hundred Protestant children. Those two institutions and others are intermediate, midway between the orphan asylums and the houses of refuge. We have two houses of refuge, one at Rochester, with a present population of about eight hundred, called the State Industrial School, and the House of Refuge on Randall's Island. We have a State Reformatory at Elmira for men between the ages of sixteen and thirty, and there Professor Collin was one of the lecturers. We have a reformatory for women at Hudson, and we have now in process of construction a new reformatory for women. Last winter we asked Professor Collin to revise the draft of a law for another reformatory for men, as there are a thousand inmates at Elmira; and, though his engagements are multitudinous and multiform, he did so. It would have been passed probably, but for the dead-lock in the Senate due to politics in New York. If there is any one here credulous enough to believe that the doings of the great political parties in New York are devious or dark, it is not for me to affirm or deny. It is more convenient for me to play the part of the agnostic. But I do wish to declare that, as a rule, politics in the State of New York do not enter into the legislation or administration of State charities.

Where we have politics that interpose obstacles they are the petty politics of the county, and not often do they prevent reforms. This bill for the new reformatory was introduced by a leading senator of the Democratic party. It was heartily supported by Senator Fassett. There was to be no division on that bill. Last winter the State Board of Charities promoted an excellent law, that no children under twelve years of age should be committed to houses of refuge except on conviction for felony. That law was proposed by the chairman of the committee of our State Board on reformatories, William Rhinelander Stewart, and was introduced into the Senate by his brother, Lispenard Stewart, where it was unanimously passed. When it came to the final passage in the Assembly, there was but one dissenting vote. Every Democratic vote was cast for it, though it was introduced by a Republican. In a similar way the bill for the State care of the insane was favored by the leaders in both parties, and passed the Republican Senate by a three-quarters vote, and was signed by Governor Hill. Before the Fassett bill was enacted, providing not only for parole, but for indeterminate sentence, these two features were recognized by the law relating to the Elmira reformatory, which is referred to by crimnologists all over the world as a model institution. They were introduced there years ago. Our Board has always stood by that institution. It was once unpopular. It is now popular. Reference has been made to the possibility of letting a prisoner out on probation after conviction, before incarceration in prison, at the discretion of the judge. That was recommended by Dr. Byers, for Ohio; but that is the law in New York to-day.

President McCulloch.— Two of the most beautiful words that come to us out of the book with which we are familiar since childhood are that the Almighty hears the sigh of the prisoner, and that the Friend of man visited spirits in prison, There is a very beautiful as well as deep thought in each of these. I am not concerned whether this is some old legend or early interpolation; but it suggests to me that the spirit of humanity with which we are all imbued enters this world hearing with the ear of pity the sigh of the prisoner, and feeling with the heart of love, and disposing to the duty of visiting the spirits that are in prison. Can there be a better way in which to describe those whom we call criminals,— spirits in prison? Who of us dare affirm that he is free from any such possibility? Who of us dare say that there is nothing in him of criminal intent, no ignorance of law, no force of passion, no bias, no prejudice, that might not at some time, in a moment of forgetfulness, make him a spirit in prison? The sweep of the phrase is immense, the reach of it is to the very depths. To the eye of humanity, whether we call it the spirit of humanity or the spirit of the Christ that is in the world, all men and all women are spirits in prison,— in prison by ignorance, for not knowing the laws, in prison by passion, by having no control over the animalism that is in them, in prison by early association, when they knew not good or evil because of the neglect of father or mother.

That is the phrase by which the spirit of humanity names all criminals,— spirits in prison. There are spirits of all kinds, conditions, and ages. Here is a little girl six years old. To-day we saw her at the reformatory, a spirit there in prison. Why is she there? Who put her there? Why is she allowed there for five minutes? Spirits in prison! I repeat this word to myself again and again, not only for the musical sound of it, but the spiritual suggestion that is in it. Crime, after all, is simply a question of ignorance, as we are coming to believe. It is a question of athletics, of massage. He who begins with a human soul must begin with a human body. Dr. Wyman tells us of a surgical cure for idiocy by opening a way to the imprisoned spirit. To-day Dr. Fletcher performed an operation for imbecility. Is it not therefore necessary that we should have a knowledge of such things? For this reason I beg leave to offer the following resolution: —

Resolved, That a committee of three on charitable and prison science be appointed, to prepare a plan of study on those subjects suitable for, and which may be used in, schools, colleges, and other institutions of learning, said committee to report at the meeting of the next Conference, and the members thereof to be Messrs. A. O. Wright, Alexander Johnson, and Professor J. W. Jenckes.

The Business Committee reported through the chairman, Mr. Elmore, as follows: —

Mr. ELMORE. — Your committee have considered the resolution relative to a plan of study on charitable and prison science, and have instructed me to report the same back with the recommendation that it be adopted.

Adopted.

Mr. ELMORE. — Your committee, having considered the resolution with reference to the Jewish exiles, reports the same back, and asks to be discharged from further consideration of the same.

Mr. MCCULLOCH said that he was sorry to hear the report of the Business Committee with reference to the last resolution. He thought the Conference might have passed a resolution expressing sympathy and a word of hope for those Jews.

Mr. APPEL moved that the report should not be received, and that further consideration of the subject be deferred till morning.

Voted.

Mr. ELMORE. — The Business Committee further recommends the adoption of the resolution offered by Mr. Sanborn, that the funds of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, and those that shall hereafter be contributed, shall be used only for the purposes of the Conference, leaving the expenses of the International Conference of Charities to be met by funds specially raised for the purpose.

Adopted.

Adjourned at 10.15 P.M.

FOURTEENTH SESSION.

Wednesday morning, May 20.

The Conference was called to order by President McCulloch at 10 A.M. Prayer was offered by Bishop Gillespie.

The Business Committee reported through the chairman, Mr. Elmore, recommending the adoption of the resolution offered by President McCulloch, with reference to preparing a plan of study for schools and colleges.

Bishop GILLESPIE suggested that there should also be reported a list of books on these subjects that can be put into libraries.

The following amendment, offered by Mr. Sanborn, was accepted by the Business Committee: —

That this Committee be empowered to prepare a sketch-plan, and publish the same in the Proceedings of the Conference.

The resolution as amended was then adopted.

Dr. Jenckes, of Indiana, offered the following resolution, which was referred to the Business Committee: —

Resolved, That we hereby put the seal of our unqualified condemnation upon the cruel practice of trap-shooting as a violation of every instinct of humanity, and in contravention of both common and statute law.

Rabbi BERKOWITZ.— The resolution with reference to the Russian Jews was to come up for consideration this morning.

On motion of Mr. Sanborn, the resolution was committed to the Business Committee, with instructions to report the same in new form.

The Treasurer, Hon. William P. Letchworth, presented his report. It was ordered to be printed in the Proceedings (page 413).

On motion of Mr. Sanborn, it was voted that the Executive Committee be authorized, if it sees fit, to print the proceedings of former Conferences, and also to have the same stereotyped, if thought best; and that they be authorized to stereotype the present Proceedings.

On motion of Mr. Alexander Johnson, it was voted that the Executive Committee have leave to appoint an additional secretary.

Rev. John L. Milligan invited the members of the Conference of Charities and Correction to attend the Prison Conference in Pittsburg, Pa., in October.

The business of the day, the report of the Committee on Immigration, Dr. Charles S. Hoyt, chairman, was then taken up, Dr. Hoyt presiding.

The Report of the Committee on Immigration, by Mr. S. C. Wrightington, of Massachusetts, was read by Colonel Henry Stone, of Boston (page 187).

A paper by Hon. Cadwalader Biddle, of Philadelphia, on "The Restriction of Immigration," was read by Mr. A. O. Wright, of Wisconsin (page 197).

DISCUSSION ON IMMIGRATION.

Dr. HOYT.— The paper of Mr. Wrightington relieves me from any necessity of speaking in detail on the subject of the immigration laws. I feel like congratulating the Conference on the change which is evident with reference to more stringent laws in restricting the landing of improper and undesirable immigrants. This subject was brought to public attention in 1875, at the meeting in Detroit; and the question has never since been lost sight of by the Conference, and a growing public interest has resulted therefrom. The federal law of 1882 grew out of the efforts of this Conference and the joint efforts of the State Boards of Charities then in existence. It was soon discovered that there were serious defects in this act, and these had been steadily pointed out from year to year, and remedial measures recommended, resulting in the law of Congress of 1891, which embodies, substantially, all that we have contended for. I think we have accomplished all that we can on this side in protecting this country against undesirable and improper immigrants; and our next effort should be directed on the other side, in requiring certificates of proper character of all immigrants, satisfactory to our consuls at the ports of embarkation. If the matter is earnestly pressed upon the attention of Congress, this desirable end can soon be accomplished, and, I believe, with highly beneficial results.

Dr. ROGERS, New York.— Having had something to do in New York with the Commissioners of Immigration, I became deeply interested in the question of immigration, and realized that there would soon have to be a national law with reference to it. I believe that the immigration law that this country has put in motion, restricting undesirable immigration, will go on until it arrives at perfection. I fully approve of the suggestion that there should be examinations on the other side. At Wiesbaden my attention was once called to a person who was to be shipped to this country because we had institutions which would care for him. I happened to be in the Emigrant Office when I discovered this very man. I presented his case to the officer, and remonstrated against his being shipped to America, and I did not see him go on the steamer at Bremerhaven; but, before we reached Southampton, I found him on board. I remonstrated to the captain, and said that he should be sent back. I told the captain that I should report him instantly to the commissioners in New York

on our arrival. He was returned from Southampton. If we could restrict such emigrants before they make the passage, it would be a good thing. There is an organization in Europe to enable the people to send afflicted members of their family, the feeble-minded and the imbeciles and insane, to this country. These people are borne down with the taxes to support these nuisances, and they club together and gather a fund to transport them to America.

Mr. A. O. WRIGHT.—Wisconsin has the largest proportion of foreigners of any State in the Union, two-thirds of the adult inhabitants being of foreign birth. Wisconsin has a larger percentage of Germans than any other State, and a larger percentage of Scandinavians than any State except Minnesota, together with a goodly number of other foreigners. For eleven years I have been collecting statistics in reference to insanity, pauperism and crime in Wisconsin; and I am satisfied that the question of nativity does not seriously affect the proportions of these classes. Wisconsin does not have more than the average amount of insanity and pauperism, and has much less than the average amount of crime. Another thing: I have made tabulations by counties to represent the proportions of insanity, pauperism, and crime by counties; and as our foreign population is largely massed in certain sections, the Germans in one section and the Scandinavians in another section of the State, this furnishes a test in the same direction. I cannot find that those counties in the eastern part of the State which are almost entirely German or those counties in the western part of the State which are almost entirely Scandinavian have any greater proportion of insanity, pauperism, or crime than those counties in the southern part of the State which are almost entirely native.

The proportions of these classes do not seem to be affected by the question of nativity, but are governed by the same laws as they are in a homogeneous community. The distribution of insanity is according to the age of settlement of the counties, the older counties having the greater proportion. The distribution of crime is according to the density of population, the cities having the greater proportion of crime. The distribution of pauperism is according to the density of population and the laxity of the relieving officers, the country having little pauperism and the cities and villages having more; but there is not a uniform increase of pauperism according to density of population, but a very variable rate, according to the ideas of poor relief of the counties or of the officers who represent them. I can discover these laws in the distribution of insanity, crime, and pauperism in different sections of Wisconsin, but cannot discover that these are affected by the nativity of the population.

And I also find that there is no greater amount of drunkenness in the eastern counties where the people do not believe in prohibition than in the southern counties where the people believe in total abstinence. This was against my prejudice as a temperance man, but I have to admit the facts. While the ideas, the languages, and the

tendencies in directions of our foreign populations are different from our own, and while we should be glad if they were different in some respects, yet we cannot be blind to the fact that the foreigners in Wisconsin are industrious, economical, and home-loving, and that they are building up a population which is self-supporting and law-abiding at least in equal degree with the earlier citizens. In one or at the most two generations they will have become thoroughly Americanized.

Mr. LETCHWORTH.— I believe it is conceded on all sides that the evils of unrestricted immigration are very great. We have some present national legislation upon the subject, but the restrictions imposed are not sufficient to protect us from abuse. I have long maintained that we should have a system of certification by consuls; and I still think that there should be further legislation in this direction, as Dr. Hoyt has indicated. It is practicable to ascertain whether a person is a self-supporting and law-abiding citizen in the country from which he proposes to emigrate; but it is impossible to do this upon his reaching an American port, an entire stranger, and without credentials. He may be well dressed and appear to be respectable, and at the same time, as it has frequently proved, be an incorrigible criminal. It is not only reasonable and just, but it is absolutely necessary for our protection, that we should know something of the character of the immigrant coming to share the privileges so dear to us. If he is an honest and independent citizen at home, he can readily obtain a certificate to this effect. We have already an extended consular system; and, if necessary, it can be amplified to afford the protection we need. As to State Boards of Charities controlling this matter, so far as my observation goes, it is quite impracticable. In many States such Boards do not exist; and we have an extended frontier, along which it would be impossible for a State Board to exercise close supervision and watchfulness. Such can only be maintained by the officers of the general government. I would not advocate the placing of obstacles in the way of the worthy and oppressed of other lands who seek a home here; but as to the paupers and criminals of other countries we already have enough, and we should adopt a more rigid system of excluding them than we now have.

Rev. R. V. HUNTER, of Indiana, said that the last gentleman had about hit the nail on the head. The gentleman from Wisconsin spoke of the average immigrant. It is not the average immigrant to whom objection is made. It is the immigrant beneath the average. There are too many people in this country of that class. Take it in Indianapolis. Probably the majority of people who are assisted along the various lines of charity are not foreign born,— there is no question about that,— they are home-born. But they are the offspring of a class of people who some two or three generations ago were brought from the slums of certain cities in the Old World, and have become Ishmaelites here. One point was forgotten by the

gentleman from Wisconsin. The people who go to the farms are the thrifty class of people. The criminals do not go to the farms,— they huddle together in cities,— so that the farm counties of Wisconsin do not give a proper conception of what is going on in the large cities of the country. For the safety of the American public, this work of sifting the emigrants must be done abroad. The examinations must be more critical than they are. The general government must take hold of that. I believe, said Mr. Hunter, that the German, the Italian, or the Irish immigrant, or whoever it may be, should be in this country as long as I was compelled to be before I was allowed to vote. I contend that a man who has been brought up in a petty monarchy is not capable of exercising the right of voting in a republic, or of exercising a voice in municipal or State affairs, until he has been here longer. I think public sentiment ought to be turned in that direction. There is a great difference between emigrants coming now and those who came originally. We do not need them as we once did. When this country was a mighty forest, we needed all that we could get. That time has passed forever. I would be glad to see a resolution go from this Conference to the proper authorities, asking for a strong set of laws and for proper legislation.

Mr. SANBORN.— The committee's report seems to favor positive legal prohibition. Mr. Biddle, though a member, pronounces distinctly against that, but admits there must be restriction of the undesirable element. Both papers favor State supervision rather than national, although the latter is now established by Congress. Dr. Hoyt presents the view of wiser experience, but favors exclusive federal supervision. The American people would never submit to the prohibition of immigration. But I believe that they have come to the point where they will enforce the restriction of immigration,— sifting out the worse and admitting the better. The examination of immigrants, while kept up here, should be carefully made in Europe also. That is the best method. We shall not always be able to obtain accurate certificates from our consuls, and a good deal of forgery will be possible. But intelligent action by our consuls will prevent the sale of tickets to many persons who now come to this country by the assistance either of poor-law boards or of individuals. Attention has been called to the Italian question. It is no doubt true that from the kingdom of Italy, which abounds in criminals of a certain class,— homicidal criminals especially, homicides being more common there than in any other Christian country, except Greece,— many rogues are coming to this country. Our business as a Conference is, I think, to support the federal legislation so far as it has gone. Notwithstanding the arguments that may be made for State supervision, I am quite of Dr. Hoyt's opinion, that only federal supervision can now meet the case.

Mr. APPEL, of Colorado, said that he was surprised to hear gentlemen from New York quoting the indorsements of the Union League Club with reference to immigration, as that club is composed of men

who represent the Standard Oil Company and railroad companies,— men who import a thousand or two of "sixty-cents-a-day men" at a time. The country does not end at Boston nor at the Harlem river. The State of Texas alone has room for thousands and thousands more. This country should say to the other countries of the world: We want you here. We do not want your paupers nor your criminals; but we do want good Swedes, Scandinavians, Irish, Germans, men of the class who will make good American citizens.

Mr. EVERETT, Washington, D.C.— I merely wish to say a word in regard to what Dr. Hoyt has said as to the possibility of restricting emigration on the other side. It was my fortune to be seven years connected with the legation in Berlin. The greater proportion of the immigration of Mormons comes from that country. I saw a good deal of it, and the difficulties that we had to contend with in regard to it. But there have been no laws to stop it in any way. The only thing that I know of that was tangible that our government has done about it was in connection with the Mormons. There was such a feeling in reference to repressing Mormon immigration that circulars, with reference to this matter, were sent out to all legations in Europe, including, among others, that of Berlin. I am not aware that any government did anything in consequence of these but the British government, which did issue circulars of a very ineffective kind, warning people against emigrating with Mormons. The German municipal authorities took rather energetic measures in driving Mormon emissaries out of every town, but I do not know that they did anything further. An immigrant who had lived here fifteen or twenty years went back and turned German, and became agent for a steamship company, and he shipped a great many emigrants. It would be difficult to stop that by any international law, as may be readily seen. We could not interfere with what a steamship agent was doing; and although, as Mr. Sanborn has mentioned, we have good consuls at every port, I think it would be almost impossible to get anything done in this way. If we squeeze them out of one port, they go to another. We had difficulty with Switzerland in this respect. That country was accused of sending emigrants by goverment aid. We were in constant communication with the legation, but there was not one case proved where the Swiss government had aided emigration to America. We could not substantiate a single case. I remember it was said that once when a village wanted to emigrate from Russia to America, and the emperor was consulted, he said he had no sort of objection to the people of the village emigrating, provided they would take the old and the sick and the useless of the village with them; but, as to taking all the able-bodied and leaving the useless, he very much objected to any such process. I do not think consular effort in this direction would produce any tangible result.

Mr. LETCHWORTH.— When I was in Stockholm, in 1880, there was a shipload of Mormons leaving for America. I went from there to

Hamburg, where I learned that Mormon agents were mustering emigrants for Utah. The American consul at Hamburg, through our minister at the German court, protested against the exercise of this privilege, and orders came from Berlin forbidding emigration under the auspices of these agents. Our minister at Berne at one time protested against the sending out of improper persons from Switzerland, and his action resulted, to some extent, I am sure, in repressing undesirable emigration.

Monsignor BESSONIES.— I believe that the plan cannot be put in operation by consuls. I am opposed to improper people coming in; but, if you want to stop them, you cannot do it by consuls in Europe. One thing may be done. We can have people in the different ports to direct immigrants to suitable places and take care of them, when they land. The French people emigrate largely to South America.

Rev. MYRON REED, Colorado.— I am very fond of such immigrants as Pulaski, and Kosciusko, and Lafayette, and Garibaldi, and Father Bessonies, and Mr. Johnson; and I accord such immigrants a wide welcome and great regard. In the Soldiers' Home at Milwaukee seventy-five per cent. of the inmates are foreign born. The percentage of foreign born in the army of the Union was less than three per cent. The great objection that I have to this immigration without any restriction, or without any considerable restriction, is this: no sooner is there a strike anywhere — and you will admit that there are just strikes — than employers supply the places of these strikers with seventy-cents-a-day men from Europe. I am an American from way back. I want my children to have a chance in this country, and a white man's chance. You are mistaken, many of you, about the quantity of land that is available in this country. When men are waiting on the border of Oklahoma and the Cherokee strip, ready as a hound after a deer, to enter into those unoccupied acres, what do you think of the room in this country? Colorado is practically feeding three counties of Americans who are trying to make farms in that arid region. You say, Young man, go West. There is no West: the young man has henceforth to go up or go down.

Mr. H. S. SCHULTERS, Washington, D.C.— We had the pleasure of seeing the present bill on immigration put through Congress simply because there was not a discussion on the question. If there had been a discussion, it would not have been passed, because politicians are afraid to pass a law on this question, unless the American citizens and every one who has the interests of this country at heart demand it. There must be restriction. Governmental certification is the only proper method. All others have failed. We have enough of the unemployed class in this country. Look at the figures of Carroll D. Wright on this subject. Professor Ely, in the *North American Review* last month, says that there are five million tramps in this country. Why do we want to import more of them? It is the greed of corporations that is responsible for much of this immigration. They are coming into the mines of Pennsylvania at the rate of a

thousand a week. They are taking the places of men who will not be ground down to fifty cents a day. They can be justly excluded only by the law of the country. There is not room for them. There is no more land. Our government lands are given gratuitously to the railroads, or else foreign syndicates control all that is of any value. I hope this discussion will attract the attention of the American people to the fact that sixty per cent. of those in charitable institutions are foreigners supported by American tax-payers. It is not a question of charity: we want justice, not charity. It is a question of justice to the American people. We want to have immigration restricted. Those who are about to emigrate should give three months' notice before they go. That will prevent the importation of men to take the places of those who are on strike.

Mr. ROSENAU.— There is a twofold aspect of this subject. We have two classes of immigrants. One class comes with the idea of accumulating, of saving money enough to enable them to live at ease in their fatherland; and, when they have that, they go back. The other class comes to stay, to become American citizens. We have had some legislation with reference to the first class, as that for the Chinese. But we are now getting Italians, Galicians, and others who belong in that class; and we should pursue exactly the same policy with regard to them. They come to this country, spend no money, live in the worst possible fashion, increasing the death-rate of our cities and spreading disease, and, just as soon as they have five hundred or a thousand dollars, they go back, taking it with them. In Buffalo one woman was discovered who rented a single room in which she had seventeen boarders. You can imagine the struggle of the Board of Health against odds of that kind. So far as the other class is concerned, we may throw open our doors to them freely. I may say that I am myself the son of a German immigrant. As Americans, we have a perfect right to say that such immigration as comes to our shores shall come in such a way that it will not destroy the homogeneity of our population. There are in Buffalo little colonies of Germans, Poles, Italians, who never have learned the English language, and who have children of the second generation that do not speak it. Yet they walk up to the polls on election day, and help to elect the officers who shall govern Americans.

President MCCULLOCH.— The question is not of exclusion, but of restriction. We are applying this all the while in this country. Massachusetts says that a man shall receive aid where he has his residence, and that, if he resides in Suffolk County, he cannot get aid in Berkshire County. He must go to his home where he has his residence. In Indiana we have a law which is not always put in force, of sending those who need support back to their own counties. We simply mean to apply that same method elsewhere. It is a question of geography. We are going to restrict this thing. The system of importing immigrants for the sweaters' shops in New York must go. I shall never forget the brutal answer of the master of a steam-

ship. I asked how many souls he had on board. He said about 150 cabin and 650 steerage. "What is the condition of the boats?" I asked. "How many could you carry in boats in case of accident?" "About 180," he replied. "What would you do, then, in the case of a great accident?" I asked. "*Batten down the hatches*," was his cruel answer. Those who bring these immigrants over have very little interest in them. These people are continually allured by false hopes. We must have restriction, though the lines of restriction are hard to draw. But Congress will draw these lines more and more firmly until we get what we want,— strong, honest, healthy men, from whom to make good Americans. We are making a world here, and the composite character of the population gives us our largest hope. Give us a little time, and we will make the strongest, most intelligent, and most sympathetic men and women, physically, mentally, and spiritually, the world has ever seen. And we will make them out of the scattered elements of humanity that God has diffused over this earth, with the prophetic thought of making some time, in this broad land, a man after his own image.

Mr. H. A. Forrest, Michigan.— I yield to no man in my loyalty to the flag. Educated in the public schools of this land, my life has been spent here; but I have some sympathy in my heart for the man on the other side of the water who wants to better his condition by coming here among us. I have no sympathy with the pauper or criminal men who come, and I am opposed to the introduction of pauper labor by unscrupulous corporations; but I do not believe it is proper, right, or practical to require a consular certificate. In my county, in the State of Michigan, there lies the fourth richest agricultural township in this country. Every man in it speaks another language. Not one of the men who came there could have obtained a certificate from a consul that he was a desirable citizen, because they were fleeing from the tyranny of the nation under which they were living. Not one dollar of unpaid taxes has been returned from that township for many years. Not one foot of land is owned by any one but this one race. They are law-abiding people, and, as long as I can remember, have never had a pauper. As long as I can remember, they have not had two men who could be classed as habitual drunkards. It is a disgrace among them to be a drunkard. I believe that in this country we want this class of people. This country does not stop at Harlem River, nor just outside of Philadelphia nor Boston. Yonder in Texas there is room enough for all New England, New York, and Pennsylvania. Land can be bought there, and the purchaser have time enough to pay for it. If people in the arid counties of Colorado are being supported, it is because they made the mistake of going there.

Rev. J. S. Jenckes.— With all due deference to the people of Massachusetts, this is a broader question than one which involves the States along the seashore. I happen to know that there are whole sections of our country that have not a single occupant to a square

mile west of the Missouri. . . . Let us stand by the Owen bill. We do not want these paupers and criminals, but we do want men and women who will assimilate with the warp and woof of this country.

Mrs. JACOBS.— Mr. Rosenau speaks of whole families in Buffalo that cannot speak the English language. I believe in compulsory education,— that all children under fourteen should be compelled to go to school a certain number of weeks a year. Many States have such laws, but they are not obeyed. No matter whether they are Irish or German or Italian, Mohammedan, pagan, or Buddhist, they should all have an English education, in order to be fitted for citizenship in this country.

A Delegate, Indiana.— This talk that there is a great deal of land still is all nonsense. The arable and cultivated land of this country is limited. There is unoccupied land, but it cannot be cultivated because there is no irrigation. You cannot have farms where there is a chance for a crop only once in three years. We have no great spaces of land to which to invite people. We have got to cultivate better and make more of what we have. We can invite only those who are fit to come here. We do not want any more seventy-cents-a-day men. We do not want people who can live on a handful of rice a day. We want men who can earn a good living, and who can add to the general wealth of the country, and help it to grow good people.

Dr. HOYT.— I am gratified with the course of the discussion, and thank you all for the share you have had in it.

President MCCULLOCH.— The session on immigration is always one of the most interesting.

Adjourned at 12 M.

LAST SESSION.

Wednesday night, May 20.

The Conference met at 8 P.M., the President in the chair.

The Business Committee reported through Mr. Elmore, chairman, as follows:—

In the Proceedings of the Twelfth Annual Session of the Conference, held in Washington, the Business Committee, of which I was a member, made a report (see pages 457 and 458), extracts from which are as follows: "Our aim has been and is to unite the social, moral, religious, and political elements of society in one organization, to promote the uplifting of humanity.

"We grant the widest range of individual opinion, and invite the widest discussion of the various questions that come before our meetings. To promote and secure harmony in our widely extended organ-

ization, we set no metes or bounds to the fullest discussion of any subject. Our measure of success, and the standing already gained as a National Conference of Charities and Correction, are a matter of great pride. While our members of the committee might each and all indorse the propositions submitted, we yet feel that their adoption by the Conference might be taken as a precedent for the introduction of questions purposely to disturb and divide the earnest workers in our ranks."

Your committee to whom was referred the following communication, namely: —

We, the Conference of Charities and Correction of the United States of America, assembled to consider the needs of the suffering in our midst and aiming to stimulate and wisely direct the sympathies of the people of this great land in relieving and remedying distress, do recognize with supreme compassion the sad state of the Jewish exiles from Russia and kindred countries, who, seeking America as a refuge, hope here to find all the possibilities of life, of liberty, and all the opportunities of happiness.

Whereas America is, and we trust shall ever be, the refuge of the oppressed where none shall look in vain for these human rights,— therefore,

Be it *Resolved*, That this Conference do specially recommend to the generous consideration of the American people the sad state of these exile immigrants.

Be it *Resolved*, That all humanitarians, irrespective of creed, owe it to themselves to co-operate in the noble effort now being made to lift these helpless men and women into the free conditions of American life by affording to them every opportunity of self-helpfulness, and by bringing within their reach all the educating influences of this land.

Your committee have given the foregoing preamble and resolutions thoughtful consideration since their re-reference.

We must, however, reiterate to-day what we said yesterday, that statements made therein are too imperfectly known to members of this committee to warrant us to ask this Conference to take action as requested, based on such limited knowledge. We desire to express our warmest sympathy with all victims of oppression everywhere, and hope the American people will extend the helping hand to all who try to help themselves to become good citizens of this great republic. Your committee ask to be discharged from the further consideration of the subject.

On motion, the report of the committee was received and adopted.

Mr. ELMORE.— Your committee to whom was referred the following resolution, to wit,—

Resolved, That we hereby put the seal of our unqualified condemnation upon the cruel practice of "trap-shooting," as a violation of every instinct of humanity, and in contravention of both common and statute law,—

have duly considered the same, and would say, in the language of a great statesman, now in his grave, "It is useless to re-enact the ordinances of God." We condemn any violation of either divine or human law; and the resolution says "trap-shooting" is a violation of the statute law, and we deem it unnecessary to refer in terms of reprobation to the violation of any specific statutory enactment. We would respectfully refer the author to the prosecuting attorney, and ask to be discharged from further consideration of the resolution.

On motion, the report was adopted.

President McCulloch.— The mayor of this city has put into my hands the report of the Firemen's Relief Committee, with the request that I make a few statements with regard to it. I would say to you who are here to-night that you will possibly recall that on the 17th of March, 1891, a large book house was consumed by fire, and by the collapse of the building twelve firemen lost their lives and sixteen were more or less injured. A public meeting was called for the relief of the injured and their families. Over $52,000 was given to the relief fund, and its distribution has been made on the following basis: The committee paid all the funeral expenses of those who were killed, all bills for medicine and nurse hire, furnishing all needed relief to the wounded and the families of the dead, paid off mortgages on two homes, purchased four homes outright for widows of the dead, and secured life annuities of fifteen dollars per month for nine of the firemen's widows and one dependent mother, five dollars per month for nineteen orphans, and ten dollars per month for the other three orphans until they arrive at the age of sixteen years respectively, and still have $3,000 to be hereafter distributed.

I take pleasure in speaking of this peculiar act of spontaneous charity, shall we call it, or justice on the part of our people of this city.

I received this meeting at the hands of Mr. Hanna, its local Chairman, on Wednesday evening last; and I beg leave now to return it to him,— I hope none the worse for having had the pleasure of it these seven days.

Mr. Hanna.— The next thing in the order of exercises for the evening is the offering of some resolutions by Mr. Elmore, of Wisconsin.

Mr. Elmore then presented the following resolutions in behalf of the Business Committee: —

Resolved, That the National Conference of Charities and Correction, holding its eighteenth annual meeting in Indianapolis, have found a welcome of which they are proud, and which they will warmly remember; that they recognize in the hospitality

which invited them here, and in the liberality with which they have been entertained, the highest type of civilization and culture, and a city and State already educated up to the best standards of the cause which this Conference was organized to promote; and that we especially thank the Local Committee of Arrangements for the perfectly conceived and splendidly executed plans for the meeting of this Conference, which have made it a gratifying success; and to the press of Indianapolis, which has so ably and fully reported our proceedings, are we particularly indebted for their sympathy with our work, and their enterprise in making it more effective.

Be it further *Resolved*, That we extend to Rev. Oscar C. McCulloch, the presiding officer of this Conference, our cordial thanks for the dignity, ability, and impartiality which have uniformly characterized the discharge of his official duties.

Mr. ELMORE.— Now *I* am going to offer a resolution, and it is not written: *Resolved*, How could Mr. McCulloch be anything else but what he is? He lived in Wisconsin for a long time, and breathed the free air there. A man cannot go to Wisconsin and stay any length of time there without being inoculated,— like Mr. Elder, for instance. Myron W. Reed was a citizen of Wisconsin for some time. I tell you pretty nearly all good things come from Wisconsin. I feel (stick "resolved" before this, too) that we are indebted to Mr. Johnson,— he has been in Wisconsin a good deal. He is a good secretary,— no better in the United States; and the State of Indiana did a good thing when they got him to come here as secretary of the State Board of Charities. And a more accommodating set of men than you have got outside there to wait on us I have never seen anywhere. They are all trumps. And as for this young man here, Mr. Hanna, I have heard nothing but unqualified praise of him from the time I came here until now. And now what is the use of enumerating everybody? We can't. There isn't a single thing about Indianapolis that hasn't filled the bill. Now, my friends, I am not a "gusher." When I was at Atlanta, attending the National Prison Association, they said, "You are going to stop and say something to-night?" and I said, "No, because, if I say anything, I have got to tell the truth; and, if I tell the truth, it will not be palatable." And, if I thought you had treated us meanly, you wouldn't see me standing here, because I am very apt to tell the truth. Let me close by saying that Indianapolis can't be beat. These resolutions must be put. I will put them myself. Those in favor of these resolutions will say, Ay. [Response of Ays.] CARRIED UNANIMOUSLY.

Mr. HANNA.— The next thing in the order of the evening is the report of the Committee on Credentials.

Mr. JOHNSON.— The duties of the Committee on Credentials of our Conference are very light. I have been performing them the past week, and they consist principally in making a list of delegates and telling how many there are and where they are from. We have had

568 registered delegates. I do not want to make comparisons, because, as Mrs. Malaprop says, "Comparisons are odorous"; but I think it is a little the largest number we have had anywhere. In this registration we have carefully omitted all the names of the local delegates who did not register their names. We have had several people in constant attendance who are not down here. Of these 568 registered delegates, 314 are from the city and 254 are people outside of the city. The total number from Indiana is 350, of whom 96 were from the State outside of the city. 24 States and Territories were represented,— California, Colorado, Connecticut, District of Columbia, Delaware, Illinois, Iowa, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, North Carolina, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Wisconsin, Indiana. We have had 31 friends from Illinois, 29 from Ohio, 20 from Massachusetts, 19 from New York. I will not read all of the numbers, except to say that we have had two from California, two from Delaware, two from New Jersey, and the far distant Southern State of Kentucky has sent us one. Louisiana has sent us one, one from Rhode Island and one from Oregon. We have had, practically speaking, a fairly good representation from almost every section of the nation, and from every description of charitable and correctional enterprise. We have had superintendents, trustees, and officers of institutions of all kinds,— those for the blind, the deaf, the insane, the prisons, reformatories, and every other kind of State institution, and also a grand and noble representation of the private charitable enterprises.

I want especially to felicitate our State upon the way the people of Indiana have come to this Conference. We always get a large attendance of citizens from the city, and, especially, a city that is as enlightened as the one I am proud to call my home,— enlightened especially in matters of charity,— but we have rarely had so many people from all over the State. We have had nearly one hundred from outside in the State of Indiana. They represent benevolent institutions of all kinds,— county commissioners, superintendents of poor asylums, township trustees, and a very large number from the private charitable institutions. Now, this is particularly gratifying to us who live in Indiana. We Hoosiers are glad that the State has been represented in this way. We like the nation, we like the National Conference, but we want to get the most benefit out of it for ourselves that we can when we have a Conference here; and I believe we have, with your help, obtained for the State of Indiana and the city of Indianapolis just as much benefit as the Conference was able to give us, and we send them away to-night with a very hearty word of God-speed, thankful to them for coming here and for all they have said and done.

Mr. HANNA. — I now have the pleasure of introducing to your attention Mr. John W. Willis, of Minnesota.

The following is an abstract of Mr. Willis's address: —

Mr. WILLIS. — Ladies and gentlemen of the Conference, our friends of Indiana: The reflections which come to us at this moment are partly joyous and partly melancholy. We are grateful that we have taken part in a week's study of the great science of humanitarianism. We are glad that in this materialistic age and in a country largely devoted to materialistic ambitions, so many people of this nation have been found who have not only devoted themselves to the great cause of humanity, but have come long distances and given us the result of anxious years of thought upon the great subjects which have occupied the attention of this meeting. A melancholy thought comes to us when we think of parting with the people of Indianapolis. Why, my friends, we have felt at home here. When you visit at one of the homes of Italy, the proprietor says, "This house is your own"; and Indianapolis has taken us to her heart and given us a cordial welcome, unsurpassed in the annals of hospitality. We have learned much from the people of Indiana. Not more does yonder stately capitol exemplify the sturdy and heroic patriotism of Indiana than her eleemosynary and charitable institutions show the humanity of the people. And, as we have gone through the penal, charitable, and reformatory institutions, we have felt that the great heart of Indiana was pulsating nobly in the great cause of redeeming the unfortunate, the delinquent, and the defective. Many of us have rejoiced in witnessing the experiment which you have here inaugurated, of conducting a prison entirely under the auspices of women.

And now, in taking farewell, we wish to thank the people of Indianapolis for the interest which they have taken in the deliberations of this Conference; and we hope that you will unite with us in the spirit which actuates this Conference. We hope that you will be members of our organization hereafter. We hope that you will go with us on west to the beautiful city of the Rocky Mountains, Denver, Col., the place of our next meeting. We have sat under a presiding officer who is a distinguished citizen of the State of Indiana. No one could surpass him in the grace and dignity and ability with which he has presided; and no one could better round out a peroration after the day's deliberations than has Oscar C. McCulloch, in the delicate, earnest, and beautiful summary he has made of the discussions which each day has witnessed. And, as we go to Denver, we are rejoiced that he under whose ministrations we sat last Sunday, from whom we heard words of wisdom and truth, is to be the presiding officer at the Denver Conference.

When punishment is inflicted upon the criminal, he must have justice. The sentence of punishment does not require that he shall be put in dank, noisome, and unwholesome quarters. It does not mean that he shall be herded with others of his unfortunate kind. It does not mean that he shall be pushed to still further depths of degradation. It means that he shall be taken into retirement for a time, placed in good quarters, surrounded with all the sanitary appliances which modern thought has suggested, and that he shall have

no society but that which is good, no books to read but those which are wholesome, and that he shall not be treated as an outlaw, as one deserted, but he shall be treated in the spirit and in the manner of Him who in his earthly career went about doing good. And so in other departments we seek to suppress pauperism. We seek not to repress the immigration which comes to fill the veins of this country with helpful life-blood; but we seek to discriminate wisely among those who approach our shores, so that the spirit of patriotism and manliness shall not be diluted, but shall be strengthened. And in this contest we invite co-operation. To be sure, there are discouragements connected with it; there are hardships; there are those who doubt and those who fear; those who let hesitation wait upon I would. But still the progress of our efforts has been, in the main, for the last fourteen years, quite satisfactory. Although I have only been a member of the Conference for two years, I feel that I am an heir to a part of the achievements of Messrs. McCulloch, Reed, Letchworth, Brinkerhoff, Wines, Craig, and all the rest of the band of heroes who have founded and maintained this organization. Of course there are those who doubt and those who fear. There are abuses to be broken up, there are vigorous and energetic foes to be combated; but still we remember that Longfellow predicted a triumph for all those who wait, for all those who labor, and for all who are in earnest, and he says of the reformer,—

"Often by illusions cheated,
Often baffled and defeated
In the task to be completed,
He by toil and self-denial
To the highest shall attain."

And so the standard floats at the head of an advancing and a victorious column. So we are inspired with hope. Your attendance and ministrations have given us satisfaction, your cordial hospitality has armed us with new zeal for the coming conflict, and, in the words of another poet, we predict final success for the cause of humanity, —

"We're beaten back in many a fray,
But e'er new strength we borrow,
And where the vanguard rests to-day
The rear shall rest to-morrow."

Mr. HANNA.— I have the pleasure of introducing to you now Mr. Herbert A. Forrest, of Michigan.

Mr. FORREST.— Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen, as I have sat here to-day in the presence of this magnificent audience, and as I have attended the meetings during the past week, and as I sat, last Sunday night, and looked into the faces of the multitude gathered in the Opera House yonder, I thought,— and it came to me over and over,— What is it that brings an audience like this together? Where

else could you find such a one? Where else has this Conference of Charities and Correction met with such a reception? I have been told that nowhere have we been so greeted. And I have tried to settle in my own mind just what it was that brought it about here. And it has seemed to me that it was the depth of your love and the vastness of your charity that accounted for it all. Nowhere do I believe that such an intelligent knowledge of charity — of true charity — can be found than right here in your own State. During these days I have found my way into almost every portion of this more than beautiful city. I have visited almost every one of your great charitable institutions. A few evenings ago I went with that great-hearted, strong, mighty man, the superintendent of your State Reform School, to that institution; and I want to make a confession here. When I left our own beautiful Peninsular State, I believed we had within its borders the finest, the most perfect, and the most complete reform school to be found anywhere on this continent; but after I had been out to Plainfield, after I had spent a few hours there, after I had seen those boys gathered in families around those cottages, playing as boys alone know how to play, as I listened to the glad shouts that went up from many boyish throats, and as I came back here again, I believed, in my own heart, that we of Michigan had something to learn from you of Indiana.

But with it all there came a feeling of sadness to my heart; and, without one thought of criticism, with the tenderest of feeling, I want to leave with this audience this one thought,— I want you each one to use your influence, to work and labor, until the girls of this State have been provided with as good and as perfect an institution as you have provided for the boys.

It is a sad thing at all times to part. If the time ever comes again when we can welcome the National Conference of Charities and Correction to our own State, I invite you all to come with them, and I promise you that we will give you as royal a welcome in our beautiful city as you have given us. Yes, we will meet you, and we will greet you in the beautiful city by the straits, where lies and flows the most beautiful river ever kissed by the sunlight of heaven. We shall meet you and welcome you throughout our State from one end to the other,— "from Saginaw's tall whispering pine to Lake Superior's farthest mine."

President McCulloch.— Mrs. Anne B. Richardson, of Lowell, has consented to speak for the ladies of this Conference.

Mrs. Richardson.— Mr. President, I had intended to be a listener entirely at this Conference, and I have steadily declined to offer one word of my own. But I feel it would be ungracious at this hour to refuse the request, and fail to accord to the people of Indianapolis, and especially to the women of this city, our small meed of thanks for their wise and hospitable efforts in our behalf, as their guests.

They have shown their wisdom in the judicious arrangements they have made for our comfort and convenience, and their hospitality in the reception they have given us and the entertainments they have prepared for us. They have given us an opportunity to see all that their lovely city affords of interest. They have shown us their beautiful Propylæum, and have received us there most gracefully. They have recognized the significance of our visit by showing their humanity in the exhibit of their noble charities. Sweet songs have been sung for us; and not one hour has been left to hang heavy on our hands. We have been received and entertained as private guests, and private guests in a household where all members were brimful of hospitable intent; and the intent has been followed by hospitable action. We recognize the kindness and the wisdom of your arrangements for our convenience and instruction. Where all have been so thoroughly and genuinely hospitable, it may seem invidious for me to refer to any as special objects of gratitude; but I am sure the women of Indianapolis will pardon me if I give special thanks to the ladies who received us so graciously at the Propylæum and at the Reformatory, while those who have stayed at the headquarters of the Conference, the Denison House, will, I am sure, unite with me in a grateful expression of the obligation we owe to Mrs. Bybee for our comfort and our ease. She has beautified the rooms we have occupied with flowers, and has welcomed all the women as to a home. We shall remember her delicate attentions. For the unvarying courtesy and the kindness and ready service of the men and the women of Indianapolis, we shall always be profoundly grateful.

Mr. HANNA.— I now have the pleasure of introducing to you Mr. Thomas A. Uzzell, of Denver, Col.

Mr. UZZELL.— Mr. Chairman, ladies and gentlemen, on last Sunday four of the thirteen Colorado delegates were heard to speak from four of your different pulpits; at almost every session of this Conference one or more of our voices have been heard in the discussion of the business of the hour; and, for the life of me, I can't tell why it is that I am placed on this platform to-night unless Mr. McCulloch wanted to place the Colorado delegation in the same position in which a peculiar parrot was placed in the city of Denver not long ago. Polly enjoyed unusual liberty, and sat on the front gatepost by the sidewalk. Sitting there one day, two friendly dogs came trotting up the sidewalk, and, when opposite Polly, she screamed at the top of her voice, "Sick 'em." The two dogs looked about and saw no man, and were ready to move on when Polly screamed again, "Sick 'em"; and then the one dog leaped upon the other, and they had a terrific fight. Polly got interested, and came down off the post on to the ground to watch the fight; and the dogs took in the situation by and by, and one of them pounced on the parrot, pulled some of her feathers out, and rolled her out into the grass and then down

into the little ditch that runs by the side of the walk. Finally, the two dogs ran up the street together; and Polly righted herself and climbed back on the post, and then looked about her and examined herself, and said, "I know what's the matter,— I've been talking too much."

Perhaps no State in the Union has made greater strides in charity work during the past three years than has the Centennial State. True, previous to this time, Mr. Reed did considerable charity work, and tried to arouse us to our duty. We organized a Charity Association, and did some other little work; but there didn't seem to be very much enthusiasm about us until some of our people were permitted to attend a National Conference like this, assembled in the city of San Francisco. By his constant entreaty, three of us, Mr. Appel, Mrs. Jacobs, and myself, attended that Conference, it being the first Conference we ever had the privilege of attending. Of course, that was a revelation to us, as these National Conferences are a revelation to every one. We got our hearts full and our heads full. We saw things that we never expected to see; we got a fund of information that was amazing; and we were ashamed of ourselves that we were so ignorant of the works of charity up to the present time. And, when we came back, we set ourselves to work; and the first thing we did was this: Mr. Reed opened the doors of the First Congregational Church and said, "Come down and tell my people what you saw, and what you heard, and what you felt." Mrs. Jacobs and I responded to the call, and talked to a large congregation. They became very enthusiastic over it, and the papers got hold of it; and the next Sunday a Methodist minister invited us to occupy his pulpit and tell the same story. And Mrs. Jacobs and I went down, and we did the same work, and the papers got hold of it again. And the next Sunday the Unitarian church was thrown open, and we were invited to address a congregation almost as large as this. And by that time things were getting right hot, and the papers got hold of it, and it was scattered broadcast all over the State; and letters came pouring in from here and there, saying, "Come down and help us, or send us a little information with regard to how we can better the condition of the down-trodden in our especial neighborhood." And so, you can see by this little agitation of two or three of us, we set the whole city of Denver, and almost every village and mining-camp in the State, on fire as to this work. What has been the result of such work as that? Let me tell you. Immediately after coming back from San Francisco, Mrs. Jacobs and I started out to see what we could do for the kindergartens. Now we have a Kindergarten Association, managed and controlled principally by Mrs. Jacobs, who stands at the head of it,— a Kindergarten Association composed of the best women of the city, with ten full-fledged and well-equipped kindergarten schools scattered over the city, with a kindergarten building costing $6,000, given to us by ex-Senator Hill, with teachers, and all that is necessary to carry on such schools, and with two normal departments in which

there are some thirty or thirty-five young ladies preparing themselves for teachers in the days that are to come.

Then came the Conference at Baltimore; and we had said so much about such a gathering as this that the citizens insisted that we should go to that Conference, and many of them said, "If you haven't got the cash to pay the bill, we will see that you get the money." So a good many of us went there; and we had a fresh baptism of enthusiasm, and came back to Denver and again awaked the natives, and started them out afresh in their benevolent enterprises. We called a State Conference. A number came from the different cities and towns and mining-camps. A committee was appointed on legislation, and a bill drawn up, asking that the legislature provide laws, so that we could have a State Board. We saw to it that that legislature passed the bill last winter; and the governor appointed a Board, Mr. Reed, who is here, being its president. And no better Board anywhere in the nation can be found than the Board now existing in the Centennial State. A good jail has been recently built in the city of Denver. The charity people have had very much to do in saying how that jail shall be fixed so as to accommodate the prisoners in a humane way. There has been a matron appointed for the county jail,—something new. There has been a matron appointed for the city jail, and a matron appointed for the Union Depot, whose duty it shall be to look after girls who stray into that depot from different sections of the country, and guide them into some proper channel, so that their feet may not get hold of the paths of death. The Associated Charities of the city have been remodelled, and we now call it the Charity Organization Society; and it is better manned and better equipped than it has ever been in the history of the place. We have done considerable correction during the past two or three years. In the county jail they had a practice among the inmates, when a new-comer would arrive, of having a trial and finding him guilty of some misdemeanor, and then charging him so much tobacco, or money with which to buy cigars and other materials; and, if he failed to pay his fine, the prisoners would strip him to the back and then lash him with a whip equal to a cat-o'-nine-tails,—right under the eye of the officials. The Charity Organization Society got hold of it, and put a stop to it. There is not an organ-grinder in the city of Denver. There is not a beggar on our streets. There is not a little girl allowed to sell newspapers. These have all been driven off. And I believe we owe more to the National Conference of Charities and Correction for what has been brought about in our State than, perhaps, to any other source.

Now, we want you to come out next fall and see us. We want you to inspect our work. We want you to criticise everything that you see about our work that is not right. We want you to strike right out from the shoulder, and do us all the good you can. And, if there be anything that you think you can praise us for, praise us, because a little bit of praise hurts no one. I think, sometimes, that there is alto-

gether too much epitaphy in this world, and not enough taffy. It requires about thirty or thirty-five thousand dollars a year to carry on the work of our charities in the city of Denver. You may think that is an enormous sum of money; but we are a big city there in the middle of the country, half-way between New York and San Francisco. With a good climate and rarefied air, the mountains just in sight, consumptives from every State are flocking into our State. Many of them come without money, almost dead on their feet. These men cannot get employment, and they must be taken care of. I could advertise there to-night, if I were at home, for a stenographer and type-writer, and I venture to say that within twelve hours there would be three hundred and fifty wanting the job. There are scores upon scores of men wanting light work, and there is no light work for them, and they are not able to do any other kind; and, consequently, we must take care of them, so long as you people insist on sending them into our neighborhood. We have some very peculiar work. Just a sample: About a year ago a little girl, a young lady rather, came from Nova Scotia to our city to fight away that dreaded disease, consumption,— her mother a poor widow in that far-off land. When she arrived, her money was all gone. Unable to work, she fell into the hands of a good woman,— thank God, there are many of them all over the land! — who took care of her without money and without price. It became evident that she must soon die. Her request was that she might die in the arms of her mother. But where should the money come from? I heard of it, investigated the case, and got into a hack, and went out and raised about a hundred dollars; went to where the sick girl was staying, and took her in my arms and carried her out to the carriage; took her to the depot, carried her from the carriage into the depot, and from the depot into the sleeper, and put into her pocket her ticket to Nova Scotia and on that the sleeper ticket, and then a little change; and then knelt beside her and asked Almighty God to bless her and give her a safe journey home. I had a letter not long ago, saying the daughter arrived, lived four weeks, and then died in the arms of her mother. I wish you could have seen that letter, all dotted with tears. Some of you will say, "What an extravagant expenditure of money!" It would not have been an extravagant expenditure of money if it had been my own little Mary that had been sent home to me to die.

Our county commissioners came with us, and have gone on East to investigate the best hospitals of the country, in order that they may build a hospital after the very latest plans, in our city, for the accommodation of the sick and the invalid. When you go home from this meeting, let every individual member call a meeting in some church or school-house or hall. Tell what you saw here, tell what you felt here, tell what you heard here, and you will set the whole place on fire.

We will carry with us pleasant recollections of the city of Indianapolis and of this meeting.

A recitation by Mr. James Whitcomb Riley followed.

Mr. HANNA.— I have now come to the point in the programme where I find two names that I think are known and loved by everybody in the house,— the outgoing and incoming Presidents of the Charity Convention ; and I have the pleasure of introducing first Mr. McCulloch, who will be followed by Mr. Reed.

Mr. MCCULLOCH. — The words of kindly praise which you have been pleased to make have been very pleasant to me. I take them as a sincere utterance, and receive them only to transmit them to the many friends and fellow-workers who have helped in the work of organizing this Conference.

We are glad you came. It has been good for us, as it has been good for you. The influence of these days will never cease. They make it easier to do work here in the future. They have given to this people an idea of the dignity of the great work, the extent of it, the serious nature of its problems, and the value of its results. Through all the days to come the influence of this Conference shall be with us, making, as we trust, the world the gladder and the minds of men the clearer and the wills of men more resolute.

Perhaps I may take this opportunity of giving a few words of explanation as to what has been done in the way of organizing this Conference; and this statement will serve both as a suggestion to others who may have similar work to do and also as a grateful acknowledgment of the helpfulness received from many fellow-workers.

A double duty was imposed upon us: first, that of organizing the Conference itself, selecting its subjects for discussion, its papers, and tracing its lines of thought ; and, second, that of organizing the local work.

The first portion of this work had been partly done by the excellent plan of organization adopted by the last Conference and by the selection of its committees. The acceptance of each member of a committee of the place to which he was appointed was then sought, that the President might know on whom to depend ; next, the selection of papers and of persons to write them.

The most important thing as regards the work of local organization was the selection of a chairman of a local committee, and for this purpose Mr. Hugh Hanna was chosen at a joint meeting of the State Board of Charities and the Charity Organization Society. Mr. Hanna accepted the work, well knowing what it meant. It was no honorary position, and we expected no amateur work. One of the first things he told me was this: "I know nothing of this work, what it costs or what it involves. You do know. Go ahead. Make this the most perfect Conference that has ever been held, at whatever expense you may think necessary, and I will provide the money." You will at once agree with me that this made things easy; for the

economic question in all of these great movements is the most serious question. A committee was called together, numbering about fifteen men, and the usual sub-committees were constituted. Chairmen were chosen, empowered to add to their number and to act as seemed best. Since that time there has been no meeting of that committee. Particular groups of two or three have occasionally met to report progress; but in the main each committee has worked out its line on its own basis and to the satisfaction of the whole. Part has come to part, making the complete whole, which has worked together without friction and in perfect harmony and to this pleasant result. An invitation was issued to a number of our citizens to meet members of the Executive Committee of the Conference. Only Mr. Wines of the Executive Committee was able to attend. Mr. Rosenau met with them. Explanations of the scope and work of the Conference were then made, and of its needs. We recognized from the first that we could offer little in the way of outside attractions. We had no great river like the Potomac, no great bay like that of San Francisco, no great falls like those of Niagara. What we could do was to offer you our hospitality, to make a kindly, pleasant atmosphere in which to breathe and in which to work; to make you feel that we were glad that you were here, — not only the few who invited you, but the men and women of this city. We wished you to meet our people, and the little children who should do our work after us. We wished you to know that this work of charity of which you have spoken so kindly, and in which you have had so large an interest, was not done by few, but was done by the many. Through the kindness of the Board of Managers of the Propylæum, that large and beautiful building was thrown open to you. Six ladies were called together and given power to act as seemed best to them. They selected nearly three hundred ladies to help them. There has been no committee meeting as a whole, nor have we known what was being done. We were certain it would be well done, and we were not disappointed in the result. Until Mr. Hanna and myself were there as guests, we knew nothing of the delightful provision which had been made for the entertainment of this Eighteenth Conference, and we had that pleasurable surprise which you yourselves have expressed.

We have in this city a branch of the largest bank in the world. It is a larger bank than the Bank of England, it has more immense resources than the Rothschilds. It is the Bank of Sympathy. It is made up of that human interest which is older than any institution, which is born out of the ancient kinship of man to man, which survives the fall and exists to-day, whether expressing itself or not, in the heart of every man or woman or child in the land. Let there be heard anywhere in the land the feeble cry of a little child, and at once a draft is drawn on the Bank of Sympathy in the name of that child, and its want is met. Let a man fall among thieves in the Jericho road, and a draft is placed to his credit by a Good Samaritan, drawn upon the Bank of Human Sympathy. This is a great bank,

upon which we are accustomed in this city to make large drafts. We believe it to be practically inexhaustible. It is the faith of some of us that you have but to name a good cause, and you can make drafts on this bank to meet its necessary expenditures. It was with implicit confidence in the large amounts subject to his check in this Bank of Sympathy that Mr. Hanna gave such large assurance of money. The way in which we realized this was as follows: On the 15th of April he sent out a personal letter to a number of our best men in the city, stating the work and objects of this Conference, the benefit it was to be to us and to the world at large, and saying to one, "Please send me your check for $100"; another, $25; another, $10. If I remember rightly, his first mail had in it checks to the amount of $1,500; and each succeeding mail during the days of this Conference has brought to him responses, so that a more than sufficient fund is on hand for all its needs.

I estimate that in the work of preparation here not less than five hundred men and women have had an active part. Each has had a sense of personal responsibility in the matter, and each has shared in the pleasure of the result. If you ask how so many men and women can be called upon to take part in a work of this kind, I can only say that it is the result of years and years of co-operative work. We have come to know each other. We forget the little personal differences and distinctions of faith or politics or social condition, and join in the common work of human helpfulness. I think I may quote here the words of Brutus: "Company, I count it joy to think in all my life I found no man but he was true to me."

So much for the work of the local Conference. The organization of the general Conference is both simple and complex. It has involved the printing and issuing of about sixty thousand circulars. I take them in the order in which we issued them, for it is interesting to notice just how others have worked in this. First, a circular was sent to all persons interested in the Conference, requesting them to disseminate its literature, to put notices in their local papers, and to see their State officials. Three successive announcements, each numbering ten thousand, were sent out through the length and breadth of this land. A special circular was sent to every religious newspaper in the country, and another to every large daily in the land. Three thousand copies of a programme were distributed in the early part of the session, and many thousand copies of its bulletin have been printed. The distribution of so much literature has not been wasteful. The good old rule of planting corn holds good here, — five kernels, —

> "One for the blackbird,
> One for the crow,
> One for the cut-worm,
> And two to grow."

And these have been seeds. Friends have written to me that the dissemination of these tracts of the Conference, as we may call them,

has awakened a great public interest, which will make for the education of people in the days that are to come.

Let me call your attention, in addition, to the work of the Press Committee. Of the twenty-two papers that are on the programme of this Conference, about sixteen were in my hands by the first of May. Through the co-operation of the Press Committee, made up of one member of each of the city papers, these papers were set in type and the forms held fully one week before the Conference met. I do not now recall any city where the press has given an equal amount of space to that which has been given by the press of Indianapolis. In addition to this, it has for weeks had printed intelligent editorials upon these subjects, and local allusions, and has furthered the members of the committee in every way that could aid to insure the success of this undertaking. Further, the agent of the Associated Press sent these printed slips, covering many columns, to every newspaper in the United States taking Associated Press despatches. To what extent the press of the country has taken notice of this I do not know; but, at any rate, they have had opportunity to know of what this Conference has done and is doing, and they must reckon now with you delegates to this Conference as to their failure to take advantage of the opportunity.

The musicians of this city have added largely to the pleasure of the occasion through their voluntary service.

To Mr. Alexander Johnson and to Mr. James Smith this Conference owes a vast debt for all that quiet, methodic, careful work which has gone to make it perfect.

The work has been a pleasant one to us all. There has not been one particle of friction, not one ache of heart, not one tearful eye. It is our pleasure to work in this way, because we work with God for the making of his world happier. We have left behind us largely the old repair and reconstruction work of the past. Most of the work which is here done belongs to that which is preventive. God's morning plays about the faces of those who work, and makes them beautiful. God's song of creation echoes in the hearts of those who work, and makes them glad. We are bringing this world, a little at least, into "good fettle." It will be a better world for little children to be born into. The Jericho road will be patrolled after this by a charitable police.

I acknowledge my personal indebtedness, first of all, to my own friends in this city; and, next, to you, members of this Eighteenth Conference, for your kindness, your forbearance. I trust the gavel shall not ever disturb our pleasant relations, that I shall not have a less kindly place in your remembrance than when I took it up.

And now I deliver this gavel to my successor, my friend of nearly twenty-five year's standing, Myron W. Reed. We have fished together on many a stream in summer; we have exchanged inaccuracies together many a winter on the results of this fishing; we have patiently endured the results of each other's cooking in camp; we

have trod these streets together, collecting money for local charities; we have read the same books and minded the same things. It is never a long stretch of the arm or reach of the heart to where he stands.

On the morning this Conference opened a friend related to me a dream. "I dreamed," he said, "that, when the Conference opened, only fifteen were in attendance. Mr. Reed presided. You played the organ. You were continually interrupting the proceedings of the Conference by some inopportune voluntary or unrelated song. Finally, as you gave out 'Old Hundred,' Mr. Reed rose in indignation, and said: 'I have endured as much of this fool music as I intend to. I propose now to occupy the time of this Conference with some remarks of my own, which will take me until one o'clock in the morning." The hour is yet early, and I am not advised as to whether he will keep you until one o'clock in the morning with the customary remarks of the incoming President. The matter now lies between you and him. May I quote in conclusion the words of Philip Van Arteveld,— "Whene'er the choicest of my friends are bid to memory's feast, the place of honor shall be thine"?

Mr. REED.— Mr. President, ladies and gentlemen, I wish Mr. John Holliday had been kind enough to have dreamed that dream through and given me the proof of my speech.

We are about to leave this beautiful city. It seems to me, as I have walked about these streets, as though I had been gone away from this city on a little vacation, and had returned. Very homelike has the city seemed. It is the old city with improvements. I miss the cow with the crumpled horn that used to deftly untie my gate up on Delaware Street. I miss some things that I want to miss; and there are some other things here that I like to see. The same old folks, the same people; and that is the main thing about a city,— the folks. Little Athens, and great people; great Chicago, and great people. I think all who have come here to this Conference have noticed the mingling here of New England and Kentucky and Virginia and the Carolinas, and have noted the kindliness of the mixture,— that the citizen of Indianapolis is an improvement, perhaps, on the New Englander and, perhaps, on the Virginian. Here is a kindliness and a chivalry,— if I may use such a word. It has been much abused; but it is a fine word, and I propose to hold on to it.

Speaking of chivalry reminds me of an occurrence not far from this city, happening while I lived here. Perhaps some of you present know Wade Hampton Evans, who is a very large man, and whose wife is a very little lady. He is outwardly a very rough man, and his wife is a gentle woman. Some people were here, wanting to buy hogs and cattle; and they wanted to find a man that would take them about the country and introduce them to farmers. They were recommended to Wade Hampton Evans. He rode around with them all day, and bought cattle and bought hogs, and told stories, and swore

a little. At sunset he said, "We are just now a mile from the Widow Evans's,"— he calls his wife "the widow." "We will go over there and have supper, and you will stay there all night." They went over and had supper. He told more stories. After supper, at precisely nine o'clock, Wade Evans shoved out a little table on casters, on which was a family Bible. Mrs. Evans opened the Bible, read a chapter, and fell down on her knees, and so did Mr. Wade Hampton Evans. And he looked up under his arm at these gentlemen that were sitting there paralyzed, and he said: "Get down. If you haven't any respect for God, have some for my wife."

I take the office of President of this association with great diffidence. I would rather have been President some other time, before Mr. McCulloch had taken it. It is hard to gild refined gold and to paint the lily. It is very easy to have a convention that will be a less perfect success than this: it is very difficult to surpass perfection. However, we have some things in Colorado that will be very novel to you, and, perhaps, will interest you. By the time we have had you there in the mountains awhile, you won't know where Colorado leaves off and heaven begins. And we, also, are a hospitable people. The old hospitality of the miner's cabin still exists. If you are in a mining camp, and the boys are off in the hills at work, you will find no door locked in that camp. Every cabin is open. Any stranger who comes along, or any number of strangers, can go into any number of cabins, and cook and eat. Use the food you find, only you must not take away anything,— none of the tools, none of the instruments or crockery. A miner, returning from his work, saw a Chinaman making off from the cabin with a skillet,— frying-pan. He ran after him; and, when about to overhaul him, the Chinaman stopped and said, "No want to lend 'em, hey?"

Mr. McCulloch has kindly mentioned that we have fished together and talked about fishing together. We have also tried to borrow money together. We came down from Nipegon in Nipegon costume, fisherman's uniform, very much frayed at the edges, unshaven and unshorn and unwashed, having been gone from home some three weeks, and two weeks out of the river bed, when this gentleman behind me asked me if I had not got any money. I had been spending my money on the trip and paying all the bills, and I suggested to him that I had been depending on him, that I hadn't any money. He said he hadn't any. "Well," said I, "what will we do?" "Well, we will go to the bank and draw some." I suggested to him that we were not looking in that shape that we could get money from a stranger out of a bank,— it was very difficult for me to get money at any time. However, we went to a bank, and Mr. McCulloch said he could draw on Denver or draw on Indianapolis, and the man was willing to give us what we wanted, which was $100; and I got the wad of bills. Then he said, "What might your business be?" Well, it might be anything; but Mr. McCulloch said that we were ministers,— that I was pastor of a church in Denver, he of a church in Indianapo-

lis. The gentleman said we couldn't play that on him. And I really believe that, if I hadn't had the wad in my pocket, I never should have got it. I think we did produce some envelopes of old letters, and partially satisfied him that we were what we claimed to be and what we did not look like. And that suggests to me another story that I have not thought of since I went away from here. I was up in Canada and made the acquaintance of Joseph Murphy, the Irish comedian, and we fished together on the Canadian lakes for two or three weeks. He knew my name and knew where I lived. He didn't know my business. We had a very excellent time together. A year and a half afterwards he came to Indianapolis to the Bates House, and on Saturday he picked up the *Journal* or *Sentinel* to find out if his "ads" had gone in properly, and in looking at these he happened to strike church notices,— "First Presbyterian Church, Myron W. Reed, Pastor." He came downstairs two stairs at a time, found Major Bates, who happened to be in the corridor, and he said, "How's this?" The major said, "That's our minister." "Well," he said, "I was fishing with a man by that name up in Canada; but the man I was fishing with was an elegant gentleman."

Ladies and gentlemen of the Conference, I shall not feel so lonely for some time in any charitable work that I undertake. I understand that one man has so much power: now multiply that power by 500 and it is so much, and put 500 men together and you have an extra power, a power over and above. That is the power of the mass, and that is the power I have felt as I have attended this convention and others like it,— the power of the mass, that none of us is working alone, but all over the United States we are comrades in one work and going forward to one success. Why, last fall I was tired, weary. I said: I will lay down all this charitable work. I am done with it. I will not be president of anything nor secretary of anything. Neither will I work at it. I will take a rest. Well, how difficult it is to lay down this kind of work. Many men and women get through without taking it up; but did you ever know one who did take it up who laid it down? I never did. Impossible!

I am reminded of — perhaps some of you remember him — my dog John. He was not a thoroughbred. Hardly. He was a plebeian. I took him out to Denver with me; and, by the way, he was a tramp. He came to Mr. Fishback, and Mr. Fishback lent him to me. He was a very affectionate dog. I do not know how old he was when he came to me. But he grew blind. He could not see me a foot or two away. Old age got him. I got a doctor, and I said, "What is the matter with him?" He said, "Simply old age." "Well, is he suffering?" "Well, yes." We made it as easy for him as we could, and then I went into the house. Everybody had vanished out of the house. I could not find anybody. Wife gone, children all gone, even the cook had gone, and left me alone in that desolate business. However, I buried him; and, when I came into the house that night, I said: "Now, no more dogs. I am not going through this thing again. It costs too much." It broke up the family there for a day or two, and for some days, and for several days. It kind of breaks me up

now. "No more dogs. I won't have it." The winter following, a slushy, sleety, snowy day, my little girl came in,— Ruth,— with a basket and an indignant look on her face,— something covered up in the basket. I said, "Daughter, what have you got there?" "I have got a little dog," she said: "a boy was going to drown it in cold water." All right: we have the dog. So with this charitable work. A man lays it down, gets tired of it, gets discouraged,— discouraged with doing these things over and over. And he takes a sleep, looks out on the morning, reads a little of God's word,— promises of the poets, promises of the prophets,—and takes up the work again, knowing that, when the edifice is finished, the building done, every brick that he has laid there will have his name on it, his initials. He helped to build the building. He was glad he worked.

We are going to give you a very hearty welome in Colorado, I assure you. It is a great honor you have paid our city, and they appreciate it. And it is a great honor you have paid me, and I appreciate it. No kinder thing has been done, and no more generous thing; and from now on until our Conference adjourns in Denver some time next June I shall labor the best I can to show my appreciation of the honor done me.

Mr. HANNA.— After singing that sweet old hymn, "Home, Sweet Home," and the benediction, the meeting will be closed. And now for me, ladies and gentlemen of the convention, there seems to be nothing more to offer on the programme. It was my pleasure to welcome you here: it is my duty to close the convention. Again I stand as the representative of my people. We have stood in your midst and listened. We have looked into your faces, and we feel that we have been lifted up into better being by your acquaintance and presence. And, if our presence has been helpful to you, permit me to say that we deem it a high privilege to hold up the hands of those seeking light in a holy cause. And now, as you leave us and turn your faces toward home and your fields of labor, it is my pleasure to assure you that you carry with you the love of my people for yourselves and your work. We shall follow with kindly interest and with best wishes all your undertakings.

And now, with the earnest prayer that you may be blessed in all that goes to make happiness in your lives and in the lives of those who look to you for guidance, it is my duty and my privilege to say to you, in behalf of my neighbors and friends, the citizens of Indianapolis, a cordial, kindly good-by.

After the singing of "Home, Sweet Home," the benediction was pronounced and the Conference adjourned *sine die*.

TREASURER'S REPORT.

To the Executive Committee of the Eighteenth National Conference of Charities and Correction: —

The Treasurer of the Conference respectfully submits the following summary of his receipts and expenditures from May 20, 1890, to May 20, 1891: —

SIXTEENTH CONFERENCE.

Credit Balance May 20, 1890		$1,023.06
Receipts since May 20, 1890, as follows: —		
From the State Board of Corrections and Charities, Minnesota	$112.50	
Pennsylvania Training School for Feeble-minded Children	16.20	
House of Refuge, Philadelphia	33.75	
Minnesota State Reform School	9.00	
House of Refuge, Baltimore	3.00	
Tewksbury Almshouse	9.00	
Sundry Sales	40.29	223.74
		$1,246.80
Payments since May 20, 1890:		
Exchange		2.08
Balance carried to the Seventeenth Conference		$1,244.72

SEVENTEENTH CONFERENCE.

Credit Balance from the Sixteenth Conference		$1,244.72
Receipts since May 20, 1890, as follows: —		
From Alexander Johnson, for sale of Conference Proceedings	$129.00	
the Baltimore Local Committee	750.00	
State Board of Charities, New York	180.00	
Board of State Charities, Indiana	56.25	
Board of State Charities and Corrections, Rhode Island	27.00	
Amount carried forward,	$1,142.25	

Amounts brought forward,	$1,142.25	$1,244.72
State Board of Lunacy and Charity, Massachusetts	112.50	
Michigan State Board of Corrections and Charities	112.50	
Board of State Charities, Ohio	112.50	
Board of Public Charities, Pennsylvania	119.25	
State Board of Charities and Reform, Wisconsin	180.00	
Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity	6.00	
Charity Organization Society, Buffalo	7.50	
Charity Organization Society, New York	13.50	
Pennsylvania Training School for Feeble-minded Children	32.40	
New York State Custodial Asylum for Feeble-minded Women	13.50	
Connecticut School for Imbeciles	4.50	
Insane Hospital, Beatrice, Neb.	10.35	
House of Refuge, Philadelphia	28.13	
Detroit House of Correction	7.50	
Massachusetts Reformatory	3.00	
Board of Control and Almshouses, St. Paul, Minn.	13.50	
Tewksbury Almshouse	9.00	
Bridgewater Poorhouse	9.00	
Poor-law Commission of Pennsylvania	13.50	
Library of the Department of the Interior, District of Columbia	7.50	
City of Minneapolis	4.30	
Southern Hospital for the Insane, Anna, Ill.	7.50	
Oscar C. McCulloch, Indianapolis	8.75	
John M. Glenn, Baltimore	40.50	
Henry C. Burdett, London, Eng.	14.77	
Sundry Sales	374.05	
Interest on Deposits	59.89	2,467.64
		$3,712.36
Debit Balance May 20, 1890	$154.69	
Payments since May 20, 1890, as follows: —		
To George H. Ellis, for printing, binding, packing, and shipping Proceedings	1,520.33	
To George H. Ellis, for printing 2,500 portraits of Dr. Byers	75.00	
To George H. Ellis for printing bill-heads, circulars, etc.	43.20	
To George H. Ellis, for printing 2,500 copies each of Mrs. Lowell's and Mr. Wines's papers and stereotyping same	78.19	
To George H. Ellis, for binding 234 copies of Proceedings, 1890	40.95	
Postage and Expressage	114.16	
Collection fees on drafts, checks, etc.	7.09	2,033.61
Balance May 20, 1891		$1,678.75

General Balance.

Seventeenth Conference credit balance	$1,678.75
Eighteenth Conference: —	
Received from Noble C. Butler, Treasurer of Local Committee of Eighteenth Conference	500.00
Cash on hand May 20, 1891	$2,178.75

Estimating the receipts of my predecessor, Mr. Sanborn, and the payments made by him on account of the Sixteenth (San Francisco) Conference, and including my receipts and payments on account of the same, I find that the receipts from that Conference overbalance the disbursements $432.77. At this date the receipts from the Seventeenth (Baltimore) Conference overbalance the disbursements $434.03. For the remaining part of the present funds we are indebted mainly to the citizens of Indianapolis, Buffalo, and Omaha. This fund is now sufficient to carry one of these Conferences through the ordeal of publishing its Proceedings without embarrassment to its officers. I earnestly recommend that the future meetings of the Conference be so conducted that the present fund shall not be reduced, and that we hold it as a power for good in the continuance of our work and in grateful recognition of the generosity of the citizens of Indianapolis, Baltimore, San Francisco, Buffalo, and Omaha. Should the praiseworthy example here set forth be followed in places where future meetings may be held, it will enable the Conference at all times to meet promptly its bills and otherwise to promote its aims.

It is but just that I should here allude to the large service Mrs. Barrows has rendered the Conference in effecting sales of its Proceedings, making collections, conducting correspondence, and otherwise forwarding its business affairs, by which means my own labors have been greatly lessened and the financial condition of the Conference promoted.

There are remaining on hand in Boston the following copies of printed Proceedings: —

10th	Conference,	Louisville, 1883	muslin	0	paper	32
11th	"	St. Louis, 1884	"	1	"	54
12th	"	Washington, 1885	"	0	"	00
13th	"	St. Paul, 1886	"	4	"	90
14th	"	Omaha, 1887	"	260	"	51
15th	"	Buffalo, 1888	"	128	"	42
16th	"	San Francisco, 1889	"	324	"	399
17th	"	Baltimore, 1890	"	234	"	202

Copies of these books may be obtained by addressing Mrs. Isabel C. Barrows, 141 Franklin Street, Boston, Mass. It is possible that Mrs. Barrows may be able to obtain from those having duplicates other back volumes, if they are specially desired. Those having duplicate copies which they are willing to contribute to the Conference are requested to inform Mrs. Barrows.

WM. P. LETCHWORTH,
Treasurer.

INDIANAPOLIS, IND., May 20, 1891.

We have compared Mr. Letchworth's payments with his vouchers, and satisfied ourselves of the correctness of his account.

P. C. GARRETT,
CHAS. S. HOYT,
Auditing Committee.

INDIANAPOLIS, May 19, 1891.

LIST OF DELEGATES.

California.

Spear, Mrs. J. S., Jr., General Secretary Associated Charities, San Francisco.
Wendte, Chas. W., State Delegate, Oakland.

Colorado.

Anderson, Thomas L., County Commissioner, Denver.
Appel, Harry A., Denver.
Appel, J. S., Member State Board of Charities, Denver.
Appel, Mrs. J. S., Charity Organization Society, Denver.
Brodhead, William H., Secretary State Conference, Denver.
Eaberley, F. C., County Architect, Denver.
Hatch, D. R., Superintendent State Indian School, Golden.
Jacobs, Mrs. A., Vice-President State Board of Control, Denver.
Nicholl, Thomas, County Commissioner, Denver.
Reed, Myron W., State Board of Charities, Denver.
Sperry, Mrs. J. S., President Ladies' Benevolent Union, Pueblo.
Twombly, J. C., County Commissioner, Denver.
Uzzell, Thomas J., Director Charity Organization Society, Denver.
Welsh, A. L., Secretary Eighteenth National Conference, Denver.

Connecticut.

Coffing, Miss Bessie, Salisbury.
Griswold, Miss Josephine M., Assistant City Missionary, Hartford.
Knight, George H., Superintendent Connecticut School for Imbeciles, Lakeville.
Knight, Mrs. George H., Lakeville.
Knight, Mrs. Mary F., Lakeville.
Preston, Sherwood O., Agent Organized Charities, New Haven.
Preston, Mrs. Sherwood O., New Haven.
Smith, Henry D., President Board of Directors of State Industrial School for Girls, Plantsville.
Smith, Mrs. Henry D., Plantsville.
Smith, Mrs. Virginia T., State Board of Charities, Hartford.

Delaware.

Clark, M. A. T., Superintendent Associated Charities, Wilmington.
Kent, Mrs. M. E., Board of Managers Associated Charities, Wilmington.

District of Columbia.

Barton, Miss Clara, President National Red Cross, Washington.
Bradford, J. H., Associated Charities, Washington.
Everett, H. Sidney, Delegate of District of Columbia, Washington.
Peacock, Mrs. S. H., Washington.
Spencer, Mrs. Sara A., Secretary Charity Organization Society, Washington.
Warner, Amos G., Superintendent of Charities for District of Columbia, Washington.

Illinois.

Boicourt, W. H., Trustee Illinois Southern Hospital for Insane, Golconda.
Bottom, James, Trustee Illinois Southern Hospital for Insane, Sparta.
Bowman, Miss Eliza W., Superintendent News Boy's Home, Chicago.
Cadwallader, A. D., Trustee Reform School, Lincoln.
Cadwallader, Mrs. A. D., Lincoln.
Chase, Philander F., Superintendent Children's Aid Society, 204 Dearborn Street, Chicago.
De Motte, H. C., Superintendent Illinois Soldiers' Orphans' Home, Normal.
Dewey, Richard, Medical Superintendent State Insane Hospital, Kankakee.
Dudley, Oscar L., Secretary and General Manager Illinois Industrial and Training School for Boys, Chicago.
Engleman, Miss Emma, World's Fair Auxiliary, Chicago.
Ferguson, Mrs. W. B., Vice-President Ladies' Relief Society, Rock Island.
Fish, William B., M.D., Superintendent Illinois School for Imbeciles, Lincoln.
Flower, Mrs. J. M., Representative World's Congress Auxiliary, Chicago.
Funk, D. M., Trustee Soldiers' Orphans' Home, Bloomington.
Gillett, Phillip G., Superintendent Institute for Deaf and Dumb, Jacksonville.
Gregg, Rev. Frank M., D.D., Director American Educational Aid Association, Chicago.
Harrison, Mrs. Ursula L., Superintendent Illinois Industrial Training School for Boys, Glenwood.
Jobst, Valentine, Trustee State Reform School, Peoria.
Jobst, Mrs. V., Peoria, Ill.
John, R. M., President Trustees of State Reform School, Pontiac.
John, Mrs. R. M., Pontiac.
Morrow, J. E., Trustee Soldiers' Orphans' Home, Pontiac.
Percy, J. F., M.D., Galesburg Hospital Association, Galesburg.
Rexford, Miss A. Z., Superintendent Home for Friendless, Chicago.
Scudder, Doremus, M.D., Pastor of Worker's Church, Chicago.
Sudlow, Mrs. H. B., President Ladies' Relief Society, Rock Island.

Trusdell, Rev. Charles G., President State Board of Charities and Superintendent Relief and Aid Society, Chicago.
Van Arsdale, Rev. M. V. B., General Superintendent American Educational Aid Association, Chicago.
Wines, Frederick H., Secretary Illinois State Board of Public Charities, Springfield.
Wines, Mrs. F. H., Springfield.
Wines, William S., Springfield.

Indiana.

Abrams, Hervey, Spiceland.
Albrecht, Mrs. B., Industrial Sewing School, Indianapolis.
Alden, Lyman P., Superintendent of Rose Orphans' Home, Terre Haute.
Allgire, Miss Martha, Member Humane Society, Indianapolis.
Allgire, Miss Mary, Plymouth Church, Indianapolis.
Armstrong, Mrs. Mary S., President Howard County Orphans' Home, Kokomo.
Atwater, Amzi, Professor University of Indiana, Bloomington.
Baldwin, Mrs. J. H., Indianapolis.
Bamberger, H., Indianapolis.
Barnett, L. A., Danville.
Barth, S. C., Missionary Hope Church, Indianapolis.
Bartlett, Rev. H. W., Indianapolis.
Beck, Mrs. J. W., Secretary Indianapolis Flower Mission, Indianapolis.
Bessonies, Rev. Aug., Indianapolis.
Blackledge, Frank H., Attorney Indianapolis Orphan Asylum, Indianapolis.
Blake, John G., Superintendent Indiana School for Feeble-minded Youth, Fort Wayne.
Blaker, Mrs. Eliza A., Superintendent Free Kindergarten, Indianapolis.
Blanchard, Mrs. Frank, Secretary Girls' Industrial School, Indianapolis.
Bloom, J. R., Secretary Young Men's Christian Association, Indianapolis.
Bowen, Silas T., Executive Committee Charity Organization Society, Indianapolis.
Broder, John, Director of the Prison, North Valparaiso.
Brown, Rev. J. E., Indianapolis.
Brown, J. F., Westfield.
Brown, Jesse H., Special Supervisor in Public Schools, Indianapolis.
Brown, Miss Marianna, Earlham College, Richmond.
Bruce, Miss Bella, Superintendent Board of Children's Guardians' Home, Indianapolis.
Buchanan, Mrs. Anna, Police Matron, Indianapolis.
Butler, Noble C., Treasurer Local Committee. Indianapolis.
Bybee, Mrs. Addison, Indianapolis.
Carpenter, Mrs. Elizabeth N., Vice-President Associated Charities, Richmond.
Carson, J. L., Trustee Insane Hospital, Fairland.
Carter, George, Attorney for Indiana Humane Society, Indianapolis.
Carter, Mrs. George, Treasurer Ladies' Industrial School for Girls, Indianapolis.
Cartwright, Mrs. E. W., Associated Charities, Richmond.
Caskey, James E., Township Trustee, Greensburg.
Cathell, Rev. J. Everist, Rector St. Paul's, Superintendent St. Stephen's Hospital, Richmond.
Charlton, T. J., Superintendent Reform School for Boys, Plainfield.
Charlton, Mrs. T. J., Matron Reform School for Boys, Plainfield.
Chase, Rev. Ira J., Lieutenant-Governor Indiana, Danville.
Cleveland, Rev. H. A., Indianapolis.
Coburn, Mrs. Henry, Vice-President Board Children's Guardians, Indianapolis.
Coburn, John, Director Home of the Friendless, Indianapolis.
Coburn, Mrs. John, Member Humane Society, Indianapolis.
Coe, Mrs. Henry, Assistant Treasurer Flower Mission, Indianapolis.
Cooper, Miss Mary T., Principal Free Kindergarten, Indianapolis.
Cuelis, Edwin Danforth, State Superintendent A. H. M. S., Indianapolis.
Cullen, T. J., Trustee Indiana Institute Education of Blind, Indianapolis.
Daniels, Lew H., Township Trustee Centre Township, Frankfort.
Darlington, Ziba, Philanthropical Society, Pendleton.
Day, Mrs. Katharine H., Woman's Auxiliary Young Men's Christian Association, Indianapolis.
Day, Thomas C., Chairman, Ex-Commissioner, Young Men's Christian Association, Indianapolis.
Denny, C. S., President Indiana Humane Society, Indianapolis.
Dexter, Frank N., Pastor People's Congregational Church, Indianapolis.
Dickson, G. K., Trustee Brazil Township, Brazil.
Dodd, Mrs. John W., Board Managers Orphan Asylum, Indianapolis.
Ducas, Ed., Director Indiana Humane Society, Indianapolis.
Eckles, Miss E. E., Fort Wayne Relief Union, Fort Wayne.
Edwards, Anna M., Greenfield.
Elbert, S. A., M.D., Representative W. O. of O. T. V., Indianapolis.
Elder, John R., Member Board State Charities, Indianapolis.
Elder, Mrs. John R., Indianapolis Benevolent Society, Indianapolis.
Elder, Miss Margaretta S., Secretary Board of Reform School for Girls and Women's Prison, Indianapolis.
Elster, A. C., Officer Board Children's Guardians, Indianapolis.
Emerson, George A., Charity Organization, Indianapolis.
Emerson, Mrs. G. A., Indianapolis.
Emrich, Jacob A., Marion County Commissioner, Indianapolis.
Evans, Mrs. J. R., Colored Orphan Asylum. Indianapolis.
Fairbanks, Mrs. C. W., Member Board State Charities, Indianapolis.
Ferguson, Otto W., Clerk Indiana State Prison South, Jeffersonville.
Fest, Mrs. Julia E., Richmond.
Fishback, W. P., Chairman Committee on Reception, Indianapolis.
Flanner, Frank W., Board Children's Guardians, Indianapolis.
Fletcher, W. B., M.D., Superintendent Dr. Fletcher's Private Sanitarium, Indianapolis.
Ford, Miss Belle S., Agent Charity Organization Society, Indianapolis.
Forman, G. S., Steward Northern Insane Hospital, Logansport.
Foster, C. C., Indiana Benevolent Society, Indianapolis.
Foster, Mrs. Harriet M., Indiana Benevolent Society and Kindergarten, Indianapolis.

French, James W., Warden Indiana Prison North, Michigan City.
Gardner, Mrs. E. L., Member Executive Committee National Red Cross, Bedford.
Gardner, Joseph, M.D., Executive Committee National Red Cross, Bedford.
Gilbert, Mrs. J. E., Vice-President Industrial School, Indianapolis.
Gold, Samuel N., Township Trustee, Indianapolis.
Goodhardt, Mrs. Julia H., Vice-President Indianapolis Benevolent Society, Indianapolis.
Griffith, E. E., Superintendent Institution for Blind, Indianapolis.
Griggs, Edward H., Instructor in English Literature, Indiana University, Bloomington.
Grummann, Paul H., Athletic Instructor Plymouth Institute, Indianapolis.
Hadley, Mrs. Hannah T., Indianapolis.
Hadley, John F., Ex-County Commissioner, Mooresville.
Hadley, Mrs. Lydia A., Mooresville.
Hadley, Mary, Superintendent Industrial Home and School for Girls, Bloomingdale.
Hadley, Miss Mattie E., Matron of Children's Home, Spiceland.
Haines, Rev. M. L., Pastor First Presbyterian Church, Indianapolis.
Hale, L. W., Trustee Eastern Hospital for Insane, Geneva.
Halstein, C. L., Indianapolis.
Hanna, Hugh H., Chairman Local Committee, Indianapolis.
Harris, Rev. J. W., Superintendent Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home, Knightstown.
Harris, Mrs. Madge D., Representative Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home, Knightstown.
Harrison, Julia Cleves, Indianapolis.
Harrison, Mrs. Margaret McC., Indianapolis.
Hartman, Miss C. E., Indianapolis.
Haugh, Charles E., Trustee Institution for Deaf, Indianapolis.
Haughey, Mrs. Theo. P., Indianapolis.
Hauser, Z. H., Trustee State Central Hospital for Insane, Columbus.
Hays, Rev. Frank Harper, Muncie.
Hays, Mrs. Frank Harper, Muncie.
Hendricks, Caroline B., Indianapolis.
Hendricks, Mrs. Thomas A., President Board Reform School Girls' and Women's Prison, Indianapolis.
Hendrickson, Rev. W. A., Chaplain Hospital for Insane, Indianapolis.
Herriott, Mrs. W. M., Indianapolis.
Hobbs, B. C., retired educator, Bloomington.
Hoffman, Horace A., Professor University of Indiana, Bloomington.
Hoover, Harry F., Indianapolis.
Hovey, Hon. Alvin P., Governor of Indiana.
Hubbard, C. S., Vice-President American Humane Education Society, Knightstown.
Hunter, Joseph L., County Commissioner, Irvington.
Hunter, Rev. R. V., Director Indiana Humane Society, Indianapolis.
Hussey, Sarah, Representative Associated Charities, Richmond.
Hutcheson, Miss Flora, Superintendent Flower Mission Training School, Indianapolis.
Hyde, Rev. Nathaniel A., Indianapolis.
Jackson, Mrs. Carrie R., Greenfield.
Jackson, Miss Hettie M., Governess Northern Indiana Orphans' Home, La Porte.
Jackson, W. N., President Board Children's Guardians, Indianapolis.
Jenckes, Rev. Jos. S., Humane Society, Indianapolis.
Jenks, J. W., Professor of Social Science State University, Bloomington.
Johnson, Alexander, Secretary Board of State Charities, Indianapolis.
Johnson, Mrs. Alexander, Indianapolis.
Johnson, Mrs. E. L., Acting Superintendent Women's Prison and Reform School for Girls, Indianapolis.
Johnson, Hannah M., Treasurer Friends' Philanthropic Union, Richmond.
Johnson, Miss Katharine D., Clerk and Stenographer Board State Charities, Indianapolis.
Johnson, Richard O., Superintendent Indiana Institute for Deaf and Dumb, Indianapolis.
Johnston, F. D., Franklin.
Jordan, Lewis, Indianapolis.
Jordan, Mrs. Lewis, President Flower Mission, Indianapolis.
Judson, Mrs. A. V., Manager Indiana Orphan Asylum, Indianapolis.
King, F. H., Carmel.
King, Smith, Indianapolis.
Knight, J. D., Township Trustee, Princeton.
Love, Mrs. John, Vice-President Indiana Orphan Asylum, Indianapolis.
Mangrum, John, County Commissioner, Owensville.
Markey, Thomas, Trustee Insane Hospital, Indianapolis.
Marmow, Elizabeth C., Indianapolis.
Marry, Miss Minnie, St. Vincent de Paul, Indianapolis.
Martindale, Charles, Board Children's Guardians, Indianapolis.
Martindale, L. B., Board of Control World's Fair, Indianapolis.
Mavity, Milton J., Book-keeper Institution for Deaf and Dumb, Indianapolis.
McAlpine, A. R., Indianapolis.
McCulloch, Rev. Oscar A., President Eighteenth National Conference, Indianapolis.
McCulloch, Mrs. Oscar C., Indianapolis.
McDonald, Miss Effie, Princeton.
McDonald, Mrs. Jos. E., Indianapolis.
McDonald, W. B., Director State Prison South, Princeton.
McGary, Joseph, County Commissioner, Princeton.
McGavran, W. B., M.D., Ex-Superintendent Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphan Home, Knightstown.
Merritt, George, Indianapolis.
Messing, M., Delegate of Humane Society, Indianapolis.
Milburn, Rev. Joseph A., Summer Mission for Children, Indianapolis.
Miller, Mrs. Mary Sidney, Ladies' Aid Society, Terre Haute.
Mitchell, Mrs. G. G., President Industrial School for Girls, Indianapolis.
Mock, Levi, Director Northern Prison, Bluffton.
Moore, Ella, Earlham College, Richmond.
Moores, Charles W., Attorney for Dime Savings Association, Indianapolis.
Morris, Nathan. Secretary Local Committee, Indianapolis.
Morss, S. E., Chairman Press Committee, Indianapolis.
Nash, Mrs. Laura B., Principal Free Kindergarten, Indianapolis.
New, Mrs. Adelia E., Trustee School for Feebleminded, Indianapolis.
Nicholson, Mary, Principal Normal School, Indianapolis.
Nicholson, Timothy, Member Board State Charities, Richmond.
Nicholson, Mrs. Timothy, Richmond.
Parker, Miss Fanny M., Collector Dime Savings

Association and Agent Charity Organization Society, Indianapolis.
Parker, Mrs. J. A., Ladies' Aid Society, Terre Haute.
Parker, Mrs. Kate F., Registrar Charity Organization Society, Indianapolis.
Parks, Floyd, Director State Prison South, Jeffersonville.
Parks, Mrs. Floyd, Jeffersonville, Bates.
Paver, John M., G. A. R., Indianapolis.
Peelle, Mrs. Arabella C., President Free Kindergarten Society, Indianapolis.
Peelle, Mrs. Margaret F., Member Board State Charities, Indianapolis.
Peelle, W. A., Jr., Chief Bureau Statistics, Indianapolis, State Capitol.
Peirce, R. B. F., Chairman Railroad Committee, Indianapolis.
Pence, Mrs. Allen, Ladies' Aid Society, Terre Haute.
Perry, Mrs. Mary E., Richmond.
Place, Dixon W., County Commissioner St. Joseph County, South Bend.
Prettyman, Mrs., Assistant Superintendent Humane Society, Indianapolis.
Pursell, Miss Josephine, Indianapolis.
Rahm, Wm., Jr., President Board Trustees Southern Indiana Hospital for Insane, Evansville.
Reaume, Mrs. Anna C., Board of Children's Guardians, Indianapolis.
Rees, Levi, Pastor Friends' Church, Indianapolis.
Reeve, C. H., Plymouth, Denison.
Renihan, James, Director Northern Prison, Indianapolis.
Renihand, Miss Mary Ann, St. Vincent de Paul, Indianapolis.
Riggs, Alonzo B., Steward Eastern Hospital for Insane, Richmond.
Rogers, Joseph G., M.D., Superintendent Northern Hospital for Insane, Logansport.
Rohrer, Miss Susan K., Agent Charity Organization Society, Indianapolis.
Royse, I. H. C., Treasurer Charity Organization Society, Terre Haute.
Sayles, Mrs. Charles F., Board Training School for Nurses, Indianapolis.
Slater, R. E., President Board of Trustees State Prison South, Lawrenceburg.
Slater, Mrs. R. E., Lawrenceburg.
Smallwood, W. C., General Secretary Organized Charities, Terre Haute.
Smiley, James G., Trustee Insane Asylum East, Greencastle.
Smith, James, Assistant Secretary Local Committee, General Secretary Charity Organization Society, Indianapolis.
Smith, Mrs. James, Indianapolis Benevolent Society, Indianapolis.
Smith, S. E., M.D., Superintendent Eastern Hospital, Richmond.
Snyder, David E., Secretary Indianapolis Humane Society, Indianapolis.
Spencer, John A., Township Trustee, Versailles.
Spencer, Wm. W., County Attorney, Indianapolis.
Spink, Dr. Mary A., Assistant Physician Dr. Fletcher's Sanitarium, Indianapolis.
Starr, Mrs. Anna M., Secretary Associated Charities, Richmond.
Stewart, Mrs. John H., President Training School for Nurses, Indianapolis.
Stockton, Dr. Sarah, Physician Reform School for Girls, Indianapolis.
Stratford, Miss Anna, Benevolent Committee Young People's Circle Plymouth Church, Indianapolis.
Sullivan, Hon. Thos. L., Mayor of Indianapolis.
Taylor, Miss Anna, Indianapolis.
Taylor, Franklin, Indianapolis.
Taylor, Mrs. Wm. A., Member of Flower Mission, Indianapolis.
Taylor, W. F., Indianapolis.
Tilson Mrs. Anna M., Agent Charity Organization Society, Indianapolis.
Thomas, A. J. M.D. Superintendent Southern Indiana Hospital for Insane, Evansville.
Thornbro, Clark, Superintendent Poor Asylum, Danville.
Thornbro, Mrs. Clark, Matron Poor Asylum, Danville.
Tingle, John W., Township Trustee, Richmond.
Trueblood, Mrs. Jane, President Indianapolis Asylum for Friendless Colored Children, Indianapolis.
Van Vorhis, E. J., Indianapolis.
Vaughan, Miss Anna M., Friends' Philanthropic Union, Richmond.
Walker, Mrs. C. M., Member Board Trustees Women's Prison, Indianapolis.
Walls, Mrs. Jemima A., Secretary G. H. Thomas Post Relief Corps, Indianapolis.
Waters, Mrs. L. P., Ladies' Aid Society, Terre Haute.
Watters, P. J., M.D., Assistant Physician Hospital for Insane, Indianapolis.
Watts, Harry, Trustee Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home, Knightstown.
Webster, Mrs. Frederick, Indianapolis.
Weiler, Mrs. Rosa K., President Hebrew Ladies' Beuevolent Society, Indianapolis.
Wells, G. A., Indianapolis.
Wells, Mrs. G. A., Secretary Indianapolis Orphan Asylum, Indianapolis.
White, J. W., Knightstown.
Wilhelm, William H., Book-keeper Central Hospital for Insane, Indianapolis.
Wilson, Miss Mary T., Book-keeper State Hospital for Insane, Evansville.
Winn, J. W., Trustee Johnson Township, Brazil.
Wishard, Mrs. L. B. J., Matron Indianapolis Orphan Asylum, Indianapolis.
Wood, Mrs. J. R., Former Matron Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home, Indianapolis.
Woodworth, Miss M., Assistant Superintendent Training School for Nurses, City Hospital, Indianapolis.
Work, Mrs. Julia E., Superintendent Northern Indiana Orphan Home, La Porte.
Wright, C. E., M.D., Superintendent Central Hospital for Insane, Indianapolis.
Wright, George M., Shelbyville.
Wright, Mrs. George, Trustee W. C. T. U., Indianapolis.
Wright, J. F., Agent Board Children's Guardians, Indianapolis.
Wulschner, Mrs. Flora, Past Department Superintendent W. R. C., Indianapolis.
Yeager, William, Superintendent Marion County Poor Asylum, Indianapolis.
Zinn, Mrs. Ella D., Superintendent Humane Society and Relief Committee W. R. C., Indianapolis.

Iowa.

Bickford, Mrs. L. F., Matron Cook Home for Aged Women, Davenport.
Breeden, H. O., President Iowa Prison Aid Association and State Delegate, Des Moines.
Crosley, G. W., Ex-Warden State Prison, Webster City.
Crosley, Mrs. Edna M., State Superintendent Flower Mission and Prison Work W. C. T. U., Webster City.
Howard, Mrs. Nettie F., Agent Associated Charities, Davenport.

Hunting, Miss Julia M., Woman's Club Committee on Woman's Work, Des Moines.
Hunting, Rev. S. S., Delegate Prison Aid Association, Des Moines.
Johnston, Howard A., Des Moines.
McCowen, Dr. Jennie, M.D., Secretary Iowa Educational Aid Association, Davenport.
McMillan, E. C., Warden Iowa Penitentiary, Fort Madison.
McMillan, Mrs. E. C., Fort Madison.
McMillan, Miss M. H., Fort Madison.
Sudlow, Mrs. P. W., President L. I. R. S., Davenport.

Kentucky.

Caldwell, P., Superintendent Industrial School of Reform, Louisville.

Louisiana.

Leucht, Rev. J. L., President Commissioners of Prison Asylums, New Orleans.

Maryland.

Glenn, John, Chairman Executive Committee, Charity Organization Society, Baltimore.
Glenn, John M., Church Home and Infirmary, Baltimore.
Kirkwood, Robert J., Superintendent House of Refuge, Baltimore.
Kirkwood, Mrs. Robert J., Baltimore.
Morrison, F. D., State Delegate and Superintendent Maryland School for Blind, Baltimore.
Richmond, Miss Mary E., General Secretary Charity Organization Society, Baltimore.
Smith, S. H., Baltimore.

Massachusetts.

Barrows, Mrs. Isabel C., Friendly Visitor Associated Charities, Boston.
Brackett, Mrs. L. L., Superintendent Girls' Industrial School, Lancaster.
Brackett, Mrs. S. S., Friendly Visitor Associated Charities, Boston.
Chamberlain, Miss Helen, Roxbury.
Coe, Miss M. A., Agent Associated Charities, Boston.
Crawford, Dr. Sarah M., M.D., Medical Visitor of State Board of Lunacy and Charity, Boston.
Frenyear, Myra G., Friendly Visitor Associated Charities, Boston.
Johnson, George W., State Board of Lunacy and Charity, Brookfield.
Mason, Miss Ellen E., Matron General Hospital, Lawrence.
Moulton, A. R., M.D., Inspector of Institutions, Boston.
Pratt, Laban, State Board Lunacy and Charity, Boston.
Richardson, Mrs. A. B., State Board Lunacy and Charity, Lowell.
Rogers, Miss Annette P., Overseer of Poor, Boston
Sanborn, F. B., Secretary American Social Science Association, Concord.
Sanborn, Mrs. F. B., Concord.
Seaver, Edwin P., Superintendent Public Schools, Boston.
Shurtleff, Hiram S., Superintendent Out-door Poor, Boston.
Stone, Henry, State Board of Lunacy and Charity, Boston.
Todd, Miss Hannah M., Registrar Associated Charities, Lynn.
Wentworth, Mrs. H. L., Dorchester.

Michigan.

Baldwin, Mrs. S., Industrial School, Detroit.
Barbour, Levi L., State Delegate, Detroit.
Bell, Samuel, M.D., Member Michigan State Board Correction and Charities, Detroit.
D'Arcambal, Mrs. A. L., House of Industry for Discharged Prisoners, Detroit.
Dewing, Mrs. J. A., Dewing Home, Kalamazoo.
Forrest, Herbert A., Board State Charities, Saginaw.
Gillespie, Rt. Rev. G. D., President Board of State Charities, Lansing.
Marsh, J. L., Trustee Industrial Home, Adrian.
Nims, Fred A., State Delegate, Muskegon.
Post, James A., M.D., Secretary Associated Charities, Detroit.
Post, Mrs. James A., Detroit.
Scott, Miss Margaret, Superintendent Industrial Home for Girls, Adrian.
Wyman, Hal C., Surgeon Detroit Emergency Hospital, Detroit.

Minnesota.

Ancker, Dr. A. B., Superintendent and Physician in charge of City and County Hospital, St. Paul.
Dow, James J., Superintendent School for Blind, Faribault.
Hart, Hastings H., Secretary State Board of Charities, St. Paul.
Hart, Mrs. H. H., St. Paul.
Holt, George D., Secretary Associated Charities, Minneapolis.
Ludden, J. D., St. Paul.
Merrill, G. A., Superintendent State Public School, Owatonna.
Powers, Rev. L. G., Director Associated Charities, Minneapolis.
Rogers, A. C., M.D., Superintendent Minnesota School for Feeble-minded, Faribault.
Smith, Samuel G., State Board Corrections and Charities, St. Paul.
Snyder, Cyrus L., Superintendent of Poor, Minneapolis.
Vinton, M. E., Board of Babies' Home, St. Paul.
Willis, John W., Member State Board of Corrections and Charities, St. Paul.
Wright, I. P., Treasurer and Chairman Board of Control, St. Paul.

Missouri.

Berkowitz, Rabbi H., President Bureau of Charities, Kansas City.
Butterfield, John L., Superintendent Provident Associations, Kansas City.
Ely, Simpson, State Delegate, Canton.
Hopkins, Henry, State Delegate, Kansas City.

New Jersey.

Otterson, Ira, Superintendent State Reform School for Boys, Jamesburg.
Rue, Nathaniel, President Trustees of State Reform School, Jamesburg.

New York.

Bicknell, Mrs. E. L., Matron Home for the Aged, Brooklyn.
Blake, William, Superintendent Public Charities and Correction, New York.
Craig, Oscar, President State Board of Charities, Rochester.

Craig, Mrs. Oscar, President Female Charity Society, Rochester.
Davenport, Mrs. John, State Charities Aid Association, Bath.
Finley, J. H., Secretary State Charities Aid Association New York, New York City.
Gallup, S. N., Trustee Custodial Asylum for Feeble-minded Women, Macedon.
Houghton, Mrs. Louise Seymour, Friendly Visitor Charity Organization Society, New York.
Hoyt, Dr. Charles S., Secretary State Board of Charities, Albany.
Ireland, John E., President Brunswick Home, Amityville.
Ireland, Mrs. John E., Amityville.
Kellogg, Charles D., General Secretary Charity Organization Society, New York.
Letchworth, William P., State Board of Charities, Buffalo
Moore, Miss Marian, Agent Charity Organization Society, Buffalo.
Pierson, S. S., President Custodial Asylum for Feeble-minded Women, Newark.
Rogers, Dr. David, Ex-Superintendent Insane Asylum, Glencoe.
Rosenau, Nathaniel S., Secretary and Treasurer Charity Organization Society, Buffalo.
Round, W. M. F., Secretary Prison Association of New York, Director Burnham Industrial Farm, Brother Director Brotherhood of St. Christopher.
Weaver, William, Superintendent of Poor, Angelica.

North Carolina.

Mendenhall, Miss G., Mission Industrial School, Guilford College, Greensborough.
Mendenhall, Miss Judith J., State Delegate, Greensborough.
Mendenhall, Miss Pearl, Mission Industrial School, Guilford College, Greenborough.
Mills, J. H., State Delegate and General Manager Orphanage, Thomasville.
Willson, Rev. T. C., State Delegate, Thomasville.

Ohio.

Allison, James, Director House of Refuge, Cincinnati.
Ayres, P. W., General Secretary Associated Charities, Cincinnati.
Breed, Miss Laura J., Cincinnati.
Breed, William J., President Associated Charities, Cincinnati.
Breed, Mrs. W. J., Cincinnati.
Brinkerhoff, General Roeliff, Board of State Charities, Mansfield.
Bruel, Mrs. L. E., Aid Society, Bucyrus
Commons, Mrs. Clara R., Oberlin.
Doren, Mrs. Elizabeth B., Dayton.
Doren, John G., Secretary Board of State Charities, Columbus.
Fendrick, Adam, Director Franklin County Infirmary, Columbus.
Filler, H. C., Superintendent Franklin County Infirmary, Columbus.
Follett, M. D., Board of State Charities, Marietta.
Fulton, Levi S., Superintendent House of Refuge, Cincinnati.
Harmount, Mrs. Julia, Matron Children's Home, Canal Dover.
Harmount, S., Superintendent Children's Home, Canal Dover.
Kelly, John, Infirmary Director, Columbus.
Lamoureux, Mrs. F. G., King's Daughters, Wooster.
McKay, Lida B., Lebanon.
Morse, Miss E. M., Assistant Secretary Associated Charities, Cincinnati.
Neff, Miss Mary S, Associated Charities, Cincinnati.
Parrott, Charles, Board of State Charities, Columbus.
Rees, Benjamin L., Trustee Franklin County Children's Home, Columbus.
Schoedinger, Geo. J., Trustee Children's Home, Columbus.
Teal, Thomas E., Superintendent Children's Home, Greenville.
Washburn, Miss Alice, Secretary Fresh Air Society, Cincinnati
White, Albert S., Superintendent Children's Home, Columbus.
Williams, D. A., Trustee Children's Home, Lockburne.
Willson, James L., Board State Charities, Greenfield.

Oregon.

Steel, W. G., Delegate from City Board Charities, Portland.

Pennsylvania.

Bonsall, Amos, Director House of Refuge, Philadelphia.
Darlington, Annis P., Chester County Child Aid Society, West Chester.
Folks, Homer, General Superintendent Children's Aid Society of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia.
Garrett, Philip C., Ex-Member Committee Charity Organization Society, Philadelphia.

Rhode Island.

Nutting, James H., Chaplain State Institution, Howard.

Tennessee.

Brattle, Mrs. W. F., Secretary Relief Society, Nashville.
Caldwell, R. R., Court Judge, Nashville.
Caldwell, Mrs. R. R., Nashville.
Jones, Dr. W. P., Ex-Superintendent State Insane Asylum, Nashville.
Jordan, J. M., M.D., Jordonia.
Kilvington, W. C., Superintendent Industrial School, Nashville.
Lyle, Miss Susie, Teacher Industrial School, Nashville.

Wisconsin.

Adams, J. Q., Trustee County Asylum, Columbus.
Elmore, Andrew E., President State Board of Charities, Fort Howard.
Frellson, G., Superintendent Associated Charities, Milwaukee.
Frellson, Mrs. G., Milwaukee.
Giles, H. H., Member State Board of Charities, Madison.
Graves, Marie J., Milwaukee.
Graves, Mrs. S. L., Milwaukee.
Olin, C. C., State Delegate, Waukesha.
Wright, A. O., Secretary State Board of Charities and Vice-President Wisconsin Veterans' Home, Madison.

OFFICERS AND MEMBERS OF INDIANAPOLIS LOCAL COMMITTEE OF ARRANGEMENTS.

Hugh H. Hanna, *Chairman.*
Noble C. Butler, *Treasurer.*

Nathan Morris, *Secretary.*
James Smith, *Assistant Secretary.*

Executive Committee.

John R. Elder.
Charles Martindale.
R. B. F. Peirce.
W. P. Fishback.
John M. Shaw.
S. A. Fletcher.
Alexander Johnson.
S. E. Morse.
C. C. Foster.
Mrs. C. W. Fairbanks.
Mrs. Margaret F. Peelle.
Mrs. Thos. A. Hendricks.
Oscar C. McCulloch.

STANDING COMMITTEES.

On Reports from States.

L. C. Storrs.....Lansing, Mich.
A. O. Wright.....Madison, Wis.
H. H. Hart.....St. Paul, Minn.
Frank B. Sanborn.....Concord, Mass.

On State Boards of Charities.

M. D. Follet.....Marietta, Ohio
W. J. Sawyer.....Allegheny, Pa.
W. W. Chapin.....Providence, R.I.
H. H. Giles.....Madison, Wis.
John R. Elder.....Indianapolis, Ind.
Rt. Rev. G. D. Gillespie....Grand Rapids, Mich.
John H. Finley.....New York, N.Y.
Z. C. Keith.....Brockton, Mass.
J. C. Corbus, M.D.....Mendota, Ill.
G. Vivian, M.D.....Alexandria, Minn.
Richard T. Ely, Ph.D.....Baltimore, Md.

On Charity Organization.

Miss Hannah M. Todd.....Lynn, Mass.
Miss Zilpha D. Smith.....Boston, Mass.
Alfred T. White.....Brooklyn, N.Y.
Charles Lee Smith.....Baltimore, Md.
James W. Walk, M.D.....Philadelphia, Pa.
Rev. Thos. A. Uzzell.....Denver, Col.
F. M. Ferguson.....Kansas City, Mo.
J. C. Pumpilly.....Morristown, N.J.
P. W. Ayers.....Cincinnati, Ohio
Rev. L. G. Power.....Minneapolis, Minn.
Rev. Chas W. Wendte.....Oakland, Cal.
August Frellson.....Milwaukee, Wis.
James Head.....Nashville, Tenn.
Rev. C. R. Henderson.....Detroit, Mich.
Rev. Chas. A. Allen.....New Orleans, La.
Rev. T. C. Willson.....Thomasville, N.C.

On Immigration.

S. C. Wrightington.....Fall River, Mass.
Cadwalader Biddle.....Philadelphia, Pa.
T. Guilford Smith.....Buffalo, N.Y.
Dr. Chas. S. Hoyt.....Albany, N.Y.
Richard Gundry, M.D.....Catonsville, Md.
Henry N. Raymond.....Cleveland, Ohio

On Public Outdoor Relief.

Mrs. C. R. Lowell.....New York, N.Y.
Geo. E. McGonegal.....Rochester, N.Y.
Robert D. McGonnigle.....Allegheny, Pa.
H. S. Shurtleff.....Boston, Mass.
Mrs. Jas. M. Codman.....Brookline, Mass.
James K. Muir.....Detroit, Mich.
Isaac P Wright.....St. Paul, Minn.
Mrs. M. J. Lilly.....Portland, Me.
Rev. C. G. Trusdell.....Chicago, Ill.
Mrs. Matt. McClung.....Knoxville, Tenn.
Smith King.....Indianapolis, Ind.
J. Q. Adams.....Columbus, Wis.

On Hospitals.

Hal. C. Wyman, M.D.....Detroit, Mich.
C. W. Chancellor, M.D.....Baltimore, Md.
Charlotte B. Brown, M.D.....San Francisco, Cal.
G. H. M. Rowe, M.D.....Boston, Mass.
John S. Billings, M.D.....Washington, D.C.
John H. Rauch, M.D.....Springfield, Ill.
Arthur B. Ancker, M.D.....St. Paul, Minn.
P. D. Sims, M.D.....Chattanooga, Tenn.
W. F. Lewis, M D.....Philadelphia, Pa.
J. M. Gaston, M.D.....Atlanta, Ga.
L. S. Pilcher, M.D.....Brooklyn, N.Y.
Jerome B. Cochrane, M.D.....Montgomery, Ala.
J. L. Wilson, M.D.....Greenfield, Ohio
Ezra M. Hunt, M.D.....Trenton, N.J.

On the Care and Treatment of the Insane.

William B. Fletcher.....Indianapolis, Ind.
Stephen H. Smith.....New York, N.Y.
E. T. Wilkins, M.D.....Napa, Cal.
Daniel Clark, M.D.....Toronto, Ont.
Hon. W. P. Letchworth.....Buffalo, N.Y.
H. A. Tobey, M.D.....Toledo, Ohio
R. S. Dewey, M.D.....Kankakee, Ill.
W. W. Reed, M.D.....Jefferson, Wis.
W. B. Fletcher, M.D.....Indianapolis, Ind.
Alice Bennett, M.D.....Norristown, Pa.
Albert R. Moulton, M.D.....Boston, Mass.
Dr. Rodman.....Hopkinsville, Ky.
Michael Campbell, M.D.....Knoxville, Tenn.

On the Child Problem in Cities.

Charles W. Birtwell ..... Boston, Mass.
Miss E. M. Huntington ..... New York, N.Y.
Col. John A. Tompkins ..... Baltimore, Md.
Mrs. E. M. Baker ..... Indianapolis, Ind.
Mrs. Sarah M. Crawford. M.D. ..... Boston, Mass.
Meigs V. Crouse ..... Cincinnati, Ohio
Mrs. Jas. C. Biddle ..... Philadelphia, Pa.
John C. Ferris ..... Nashville, Tenn.
Mrs. A. Jacobs ..... Denver, Col.
Oscar L. Dudley ..... Chicago. Ill.
Rev. E. A. Osborne ..... Charlotte, N.C.
S. T. Merrill ..... Beloit, Wis.

On Penal and Reformatory Systems.

Charles A. Collin ..... Ithaca, N.Y.
H. F. Hatch ..... Jackson, Mich.
R. W. McClaughry ..... Huntingdon, Pa.
Roeliff Brinkerhoff ..... Mansfield, Ohio
Z. R. Brockway ..... Elmira, N.Y.
G. S. Griffith ..... Baltimore, Md.
Walter Lindley, M.D ..... Los Angeles, Cal.
Fred G. Pettigrove ..... Boston, Mass.
Mrs. T. A. Hendricks ..... Indianapolis, Ind.
Mrs. A. J. Aikens ..... Milwaukee, Wis.
Mrs. Hannah J. Bailey ..... Winthrop, Me.
Charlton T. Lewis, LL.D. ..... Norristown, N.J.
Robert Caldwell ..... Nashville, Tenn.

On Custodial Care of Adult Idiots.

W. B. Fish, M.D. ..... Lincoln, Ill.
Hon. Wm. M. Ashman ..... Philadelphia, Pa.
Henry Stone ..... Boston, Mass.
A. H. Beaton, M.D. ..... Orillia, Ontario, Can.
G. H. Knight, M.D. ..... Lakeville, Conn.
G. A. Doren, M.D. ..... Columbus, Ohio
Mrs. Helen B. Case ..... Rochester, N.Y.
Miss Mattie Gundry ..... Owings Mills, Md.
Mrs. Elizabeth H. Chase ..... Valley Falls, R.I.

On the Co-operation of Women in the Management of Charitable, Reformatory, and Penal Institutions.

Miss Clara Barton ..... Washington, D.C.
Mrs. L. M. N. Stevens ..... Portland, Me.
Mrs. Virginia T. Smith ..... Hartford, Conn.
Mrs. Anne B. Richardson ..... Lowell, Mass.
Mrs. Sarah B. Cooper ..... San Francisco, Cal.
Mrs. M. C. Goodlett ..... Nashville, Tenn.
Mrs. E. B. Fairbanks ..... Milwaukee, Wis.
Mrs. Mary E. R. Cobb ..... Philadelphia, Pa.
Mrs. A. L. D'Arcambal ..... Detroit, Mich.
Mrs. C. M. Walker ..... Indianapolis, Ind.
Mrs. Geo. W. Townsend ..... Buffalo, N.Y.
Mrs. Delia A. Williams ..... Delaware, Ohio
Mrs. Archibald Alexander, Castle Point, Hoboken, N.J.
Wm. P. Letchworth ..... Buffalo, N.Y.
Robert Treat Paine ..... Boston, Mass.
Francis T. King ..... Baltimore, Md.

State Corresponding Secretaries.

Alabama ..... P. Bryce, M.D., Tuskaloosa.
Arizona ..... Thos. Darlington, M.D., Bisbee.
California ..... Mrs. Charlotte Blake Brown, M.D., San Francisco.
Colorado ..... J. S. Appel, Denver.
Connecticut ..... Mrs. Virginia T. Smith, Hartford.
Delaware ..... Mrs. F. H. Easby, Wilmington.
District of Columbia ..... Mrs. Sarah A. Spencer, Washington.
Florida ..... L. B. Wombwell, Tallahassee.
Georgia ..... Rev. Geo. L. Chaney, Atlanta.
Idaho ..... C. H. Berry.
Illinois ..... Mrs. J. M. Flower, Chicago.
Indiana ..... L. A. Barnett, Danville.
Indian Territory ..... Rev. R. W. Hill, Muskogee.
Iowa ..... Jennie McCowan, M.D., Davenport.
Kansas ..... Charles E. Faulkner, Atchison.
Kentucky ..... B. B. Huntoon, Louisville.
Louisiana ..... Carlton Hunt, New Orleans.
Maine ..... Mrs. L. M. N. Stevens, Portland.
Maryland ..... John M. Glenn, Baltimore.
Massachusetts ..... A. R. Moulton, M.D., Boston.
Michigan ..... Levi L. Barbour, Detroit.
Minnesota ..... C. L. Snyder, Minneapolis.
Mississippi .....
Missouri ..... Rev. T. P. Haley, Kansas City.
Montana ..... Leslie P. Hill, Roundup.
Nebraska ..... J. A. Gillespie, Omaha.
Nevada ..... Fred. Fairbanks.
New Hampshire ..... Irving A. Watson, M.D., Concord.
New Jersey ..... John W. Ward, M.D., Trenton.
New York ..... Charles D. Kellogg, New York.
North Carolina ..... J. P. Sawyer, Asheville.
North Dakota ..... O. W. Archibald, M.D., Jamestown.
Ohio ..... John G. Doren, Dayton.
Oregon ..... Rev. T. L. Eliot, Portland.
Pennsylvania ..... Dr. J. W. Walk, Philadelphia.
Rhode Island ..... Mrs. J. K. Barney, Providence.
South Carolina ..... Charles H. Simonton, Charleston.
South Dakota ..... Theodore D. Kanouse, Sioux Falls.
Tennessee ..... Mrs. L. C. French, Knoxville.
Texas ..... Benj. E. McCulloch, Huntsville.
Utah ..... Mrs. Cornelia G. Paddock, Salt Lake City.
Vermont ..... Rev. J. Edward Wright, Montpelier.
Virginia ..... Gen. S. C. Armstrong, Hampton.
Washington ..... Rev. M. M. Greer, Tacoma.
West Virginia ..... Nathan L. Goff, Wheeling.
Wisconsin ..... E. O. Holden, Baraboo.
Wyoming .....

OFFICERS AND MEMBERS OF STATE BOARDS.

COLORADO.

State Board of Charities and Corrections.

Gov. John L. Routt, *ex officio*.....
Myron W. Reed, President.....Denver
J. C. Hay, Vice-President.....Pueblo
Dennis Sheedy.....Denver
William F. Slocum.....Colorado Springs
Bruce Johnson.....Greeley
J. S. Appel.....Denver
William H. Brodhead, Secretary.....

CONNECTICUT.

State Board of Charities.

Mrs. Virginia T. Smith.....Hartford
George H. Woods.....Hartford
Mrs. Francis Bacon, Secretary.....New Haven
Charles S. Canfield.....Bridgeport*
John A. Douglas.....Middletown*

* Appointed by the governor, but not yet confirmed by the Senate.

ILLINOIS.

Board of Public Charities.

J. L. R. Wadsworth, M.D., President...Collinsville
J. C. Corbus, M.D.....Mendota
A. T. Barnes, M.D.....Bloomington
Rev. C. G. Trusdell, D.D.....Chicago
J. M. Gould.....Moline
Rev. Frederick H. Wines, Secretary....Springfield
John W. Whipp, Assistant Secretary

INDIANA.

Board of Public Charities.

Hon. Alvin P. Hovey, Governor, *ex-officio* Pres.
Stoughton A. Fletcher.....Indianapolis
John R. Elder.....Indianapolis
Oscar C. McCulloch.....Indianapolis
Timothy Nicholson.....Richmond
Mrs. Margaret F. Peelle.....Indianapolis
Mrs. C. W. Fairbanks.....Indianapolis
Alexander Johnson, Secretary.....Indianapolis

KANSAS.

Board of Trustees of the Charitable Institutions.

L. K. Kirk, President.....Garnett
T. F. Rhodes, Secretary.....Frankfort
W. W. Miller, Treasurer.....Osage City
W. T. Yoe.....Independence
H. B. Kelly.....McPherson

MASSACHUSETTS.

Board of Lunacy and Charity.

Richard L. Hodgdon, M.D., Chairman, Arlington
Mrs. Henrietta G. Codman, Vice-chairm'n. Brookline
Charles F. Donnelly.....Boston
Edward Hitchcock, M.D.....Amherst
Charles J. Curran, M.D.....North Adams.
Stephen C. Wrightington.....Fall River
(Superintendent of Indoor Poor.)
Hiram S. Shurtleff.....Boston
(Superintendent of Outdoor Poor.)
Mrs. Anne B. Richardson.....Lowell
George W. Johnson.....Brookfield
Henry Stone.....Boston
Laban Pratt.....Boston
Charles E. Woodbury, M.D.....Arlington
(Inspector of Institutions.)
John D. Wells.....Cambridge
(Clerk and Auditor.)

MICHIGAN.

Board of Corrections and Charities.

The Governor, *ex officio*.....
Rt. Rev. George O. Gillespie, Chairman.....Grand Rapids
L. C. Storrs, Secretary.....
Herbert A. Forrest.....East Saginaw
Dr. Hal C. Wyman.....Detroit
James M. Neasmith.....Vicksburg

MINNESOTA.

Board of Corrections and Charities.

Gov. W. R. Merriam, *ex-officio* President.....
H. H. Hart, Secretary.....St Paul
C Amundson.....St. Peter
T. Simpson.....Winona
S. G. Smith.....St. Paul
G. Vivian.....Alexandria
J. W. Willis.....St. Paul
W. C. Williston.....Red Wing

NEW JERSEY.

State Board of Health.

MEMBERS *EX OFFICIO.*

Hon. Henry C. Kelsey, Secretary of State
Hon. John P. Stockton, LL.D., Attorney-General
Prof. John C. Smock, Ph.D., State Geologist

Ezra M. Hunt, M.D., LL.D., Secretary...Trenton
E. A. Osborn, C.E.....Middletown
Edward R. O'Reilly, M.D.....Elizabeth
Laban Dennis, M.D.....Newark
Prof. Cyrus F. Brackett, M.D., LLD., President.....Princeton
Franklin Gauntt, M.D.....Burlington
Prof. A. R. Leeds, Ph.D.....Hoboken

NEW YORK.

State Board of Charities.

EX-OFFICIO MEMBERS.

Hon. Edward F. Jones, Lieutenant Governor, Albany
Hon. Frank Rice, Secretary of State.....Albany
Hon. Edward Wemple, Comptroller.....Albany
Hon. Charles F. Tabor, Attorney-General, Albany

MEMBERS APPOINTED BY THE GOVERNOR AND SENATE.

First Judicial District.....William R. Stewart.....54 Williams Street, New York
New York County.....Samuel Alexander.....95 Park Avenue, New York
(Under Chapter 571, Laws of 1873.)
New York County.....Mrs. Beekman de Peyster.....465 West Twenty-third Street, New York
(Under Chapter 571, Laws of 1873.)
Second Judicial District....Sarah M. Carpenter.....Poughkeepsie
Kings County.....Carll H. De Silver.....45 Pierrepont Street, Brooklyn
(Under Chapter 571, Laws of 1873.)
Third Judicial District.....John H. Van Antwerp.....2 Lodge Street, Albany
Fourth Judicial District....Edward W. Foster.....Potsdam, St. Lawrence County
Fifth Judicial District.....Robert McCarthy.....Syracuse
Sixth Judicial District.....Peter Walrath.....Chittenango, Madison County
Seventh Judicial District....Oscar Craig.....Rochester
Eighth Judicial District....William P. Letchworth.....Buffalo

OFFICERS.

Oscar Craig.....President
John H. Van Antwerp.....Vice-President
Charles S. Hoyt.....Secretary
James O. Fanning.....Assistant Secretary

NORTH CAROLINA.

Board of Public Charities.

Charles Duffy, Jr., M.D., Chairman....Newbern
Lawrence J. Haughten.....Pittsboro
C. B. Denson, Secretary.....Raleigh
I. T. Reid, M.D.....Old Fort
W. M. N. Jones.....Raleigh

OHIO.

Board of State Charities.

Roeliff Brinkerhoff, Chairman.....Mansfield
William Howard Neff.....Cincinnati
H. H. McFadden.....Steubenville
James L. Wilson.....Greenfield
Charles Parrott.....Columbus
M. D. Follett.....Marietta
Gov. James E. Campbell, President *ex officio*.....
John C. Doren, Secretary.....

OREGON.

State Board of Charities and Corrections.

C. E. Cline, President.....
W. E. Carll.....
D. Solis Cohen.....
Thomas N. Strong, Secretary.....
Joseph Holt.....
J. S. White.....

PENNSYLVANIA.

Board of Public Charities.

Mahlon H. Dickinson, President.....Philadelphia
Thomas G. Morton.....Philadelphia
J. W. C. O'Neal.....Gettysburg
Henry M. Boies.....Scranton
George W. Starr.....Erie
George I. McLeod.....Philadelphia
James B. Scott.....Pittsburg
Thomas W. Barlow.....Philadelphia
William B. Gill.....Philadelphia
George W. Ryon.....Shamokin
Cadwalader Biddle, *ex-officio* Secretary and General Agent, Philadelphia

RHODE ISLAND.

Board of State Charities and Corrections.

Thomas Coggeshall, Chairman.....
E. H. Wilson.....East Providence
William S. Hayward.....Providence
P. O. Littlefield.....Narragansett Pier
Charles H. Peckham.....Providence
Henry L. Greene.....River Point
W. H. Spooner.....Bristol
W. H. Hopkins.....
William W. Chapin, Secretary.....Providence

SOUTH DAKOTA.

State Board of Charities and Corrections.

G. A. Uline, President.....Dell Rapids
J. M. Talcott.....Elk Point
Z. Richey, Secretary.....Yankton
C. M. Howe.....Mellette
Robert W. Haire.....Aberdeen

WISCONSIN.

Board of Control of Reformatory, Charitable, and Penal Institutions.

Clarence Snyder, President.....Ashland
J. E. Jones.....Portage
Dr. J. L. Cleary.....Kenosha
D. S. Comly, Secretary.....Madison
Charles D. Parker.....River Falls
Charles Luling.....Manitowoc
W. H. Graebner.....Milwaukee

INDEX OF SPEAKERS AND WRITERS.

Adams, J. Q., 34.
Ancker, Dr. A. B., 352.
Appel, J. S., 311, 319, 323, 367, 383.
Ayres, P. W., 315.

Baker, Charles H., 31.
Barbour, Levi L., 41.
Barrows, Isabel C., 332.
Barton, Clara, 9.
Battle, Fannie, 302.
Bell, Dr. Samuel, 355.
Berkowitz, Rabbi, 368, 384.
Bessonies, Monsignor, 353, 390.
Biddle, Cadwalader, 197.
Blake, J. G., 332.
Blaker, Mrs. E. A., 325.
Bone, Mrs. M. W., 339.
Bonney, C. C., 349.
Bonsall, Amos, 331.
Brayton, Dr., 353.
Brinkerhoff, R., 220, 251, 308, 311, 322, 340, 358, 376, 380.

Caldwell, R. R., 302, 357.
Caldwell, Mrs. R. R.
Chase, P. F., 358.
Chatard, Francis S., 50.
Codman, Mrs. James M., 46.
Collin, Charles A., 214.
Craig, Oscar, 85, 334, 352, 381.
Crawford, Dr. Sarah M., 327, 358.

D'Arcambal, Mrs. A., 338.
Darlington, Thomas, M.D., 293.
Davis, Geo. R., 349.
Dewey, Richard, 71.
Doren, John G., 342.
Dudley, Oscar L., 145.

Elder, John R., 162.
Elmore, A. E., 253, 323, 334, 359, 360, 371, 373, 383, 384, 394, 395, 396.
Ely, Simpson, 307, 308.

Finley, John H., 124.
Fish, William B., M.D., 98, 385.
Fishback, W. P., 4.
Fletcher, W. B., 62, 354.
Flower, Mrs. J. M., 356, 357.
Flower, Mrs. L. L., 337.
Folks, Homer, 136.
Follett, M. D., 154, 342, 364.
Forrest, Herbert A., 380, 392, 399.
Fulton, Levi S., 378.

Gallup, Silas N., 333.
Garrett, Philip C., 309, 310, 321.
Giles, H. H., 78, 321, 323, 354.
Gillespie, Bishop, 348, 358, 373, 384.
Gillett, Philip G., 335.
Glenn, John, 253, 308.
Goodlett, Mrs. M. C., 345.

Hadley, Miss Mary, 341.
Haggart, Mrs. Mary, 343.
Hanna, Hugh H., 1, 395, 397, 399, 401, 412.
Hart, H. H., 253, 289, 342, 372, 378.
Hatch, E. D. W., 295.
Henderson, C. R., 39.
Hill, J. Nevin, 36.
Holden, E. O., 46.
Holt, George D., 118.
Houghton, Mrs. Louise Seymour, 346.
Hovey, A. P., 2.
Hoyt, Dr. C. S., 341, 385, 393.
Hunter, R. V., 387.

Jacobs, Mrs. A., 311, 337, 343, 363.
Jenckes, J. W., 370, 384, 392.
Johnson, Alexander, 254, 332, 342, 344, 366, 396.
Jones, W. P., 302, 356, 357, 358.
Jordan, J. H., 302.

Kellogg, Charles D., 151, 314, 365.
Kilvington, W. C., 302.
Kirkwood, R. J., 378.
Knight, George H., M.D., 107.

Letchworth, W. P., 252, 336, 344, 384, 387.
Leucht, Rev. J. L., 307, 319.
Lewis, Charlton T., 214.
Lilly, Mrs. M. J., 32.
Lyle, Miss Susie, 302.

Martindale, Charles, 328.
McCulloch, O. C., 10, 305, 318, 346, 352, 353, 354, 356, 358, 361, 367, 379, 382, 383, 391, 395, 400, 405.
M'Gonnigle, Robert D., 38.
Milligan, Rev. J. L., 384.
Mills, J. H., 310, 324.
Moulton, A. R., 68, 320, 321, 340, 354.

Nicholson, Timothy, 331.
Nutting, Rev. J. H., 329, 343, 373, 374, 381.

Otterson, Ira, 309, 312, 378.

Pierce, Henry B., 360.
Pierson, S. S., 335.

Reed, Myron W., 20, 370, 390, 409.
Reeve, C. H., 322.
Richardson, Mrs. Anne B., 400.
Richmond, Miss Mary E., 312, 338, 366.

Riley, James Whitcomb, 304, 405.
Rogers, Dr. David, 319, 341, 385.
Rosenau, N. S., 317, 355, 360, 376, 391.

Sanborn, F. B., 7, 167, 250, 289, 308, 320, 352, 356, 358, 376, 377, 384, 388.
Schulters, H. S., 390.
Smith, Eugene, 214.
Smith, H. D., 358.
Smith, S. G , 317.
Smith, Virginia T., 230, 341, 342, 344.
Spear, Mrs. J. S., 310.
Spencer, Mrs., 374.
Steele, Wm. G., 364.
Stone, Col. Henry, 332.
Storrs, L. C., 289.
Sullivan, Thomas, 2.

Taylor, H. C., 37.
Thomas, Dr. A. J., 369.
Todd, Hannah M., 109.
Trusdell, Rev. C. G., 316.

Uzzell, Rev. Thomas J., 401.

Van Arsdal, Rev. M. V. B., 329.

Walker, Mrs. C. M., 342, 343.
Weaver, William, 334, 359.
Wendte, Rev. C. W., 362, 370.
Willis, John W., 398.
Willson, Rev. W. C., 371.
Wines, F. H., 242, 347, 349, 351, 352, 357, 358.
Wright, A. O., 222, 255, 289, 373, 379, 386.
Wrignt, Isaac P., 28.
Wrigntington, S. C., 187.
Wyman, Hal C., M.D., 53.

INDEX OF SUBJECTS.

Abstract of New York Law, 96.
Adams, Samuel, 21.
Addresses: of welcome, 1, 2, 4; of response, 7, 8, 9; of President McCulloch, 10.
Address, by Mrs. Louise Seymour Houghton, 346.
Address by Rev. F. H. Wines, 347.
Address of Mr. J. W. Willis, 397.
Address of Mr. H. A. Forrest, 399.
Address of Mrs. Anne B. Richardson, 400.
Address of Mr. Thomas A. Uzzell, 401.
Address (closing) of Rev. O. C. McCulloch, 405.
Address by Rev. M. W. Reed, 409.
Adjournment, 412.
Adult, idiots, colony care for, 107.
Adult, idiots, custodial care of, 98.
African nurses, 358.
Age in insanity, 223.
Almshouse life, 33.
Almhouses, supervision of, 70.
Almshouses, visitors for, 340.
American Educational Aid Association, 329.
Appendix to reports from States, 290.
Arizona Penitentiary, 310.
Arizona, report from, 292.
Armenverbände, of Frankfort, 134.
Armour, Philip, 317.
Arnold, Edwin, 50.
Aschrott, Dr. 134.
Assisted emigration, 194.
Association for improving the condition of the poor, 117.
Association of innocent and guilty children, 137.
Association of Med. Supts. of Am. Institutions for Insane, 78.
Attendants, number of, for insane, 321.

Back numbers of proceedings, 416.
Bedlam Hospital, 6.
Beecher, Henry Ward, 10.
Belgian Method, 66.
Boarding out of delinquent children, 138.
Boarding out of destitute infants, 327.
Boarding-out system for children, 133.
Board of State Charities, A; how it looks to a new member, 162.
Booth, General, 22, 133.
Breaking up homes of vice, 32, 34.
Brookline, Mass., Industrial Society of, 47.
Bureau of Statistics of Treasury Dept., 196.
Burns, Robert, 27.
Business committee, report of, 355, 359, 383, 384, 393.
Byers, A. G., 11.

Care of delinquent children, 136.
Care of feeble-minded, 98.
Carlyle, Thomas, 21.
Catholic Protectory, 381.
Causes of poverty, 114.
Certificates of insanity, 69.
"Character Study, A," 304.
Charity buildings, 117.
Charity, how is its work best done, 50.
Charities of Greece and Italy, 185.
Charity organization, 109.
Charity organization conferences, 112.
Charity organization, discussion on, 360.
Charity organization: scope of, 110; statistics of, 110; conferences of, 112; friendly visiting of, 112; gains of, 116.
Charity organization societies, 14.
Child problem in cities, the, 124.
Children's Aid Journal, 142.
Children in State care, 273.
Children's Aid Society of Pennsylvania, 136.
Chinese immigrants, 391.
Chronic insane, 78.
Church of the Divine Fragments, the, 19.
Cincinnati House of Refuge, 143.
Cincinnati, outdoor relief in, 316.
Classification of defective classes, 222.
Climate and crime, 226.
Climate, effects of, on insanity, 225.
Colony care of adult idiots, 107.
Colorado, report from, 311.
Colored nurses, 358.
Columbian International Exposition, 347, 349, 350, 376.
Committees: on resolutions, 306; on organization, 324; on time and place, 331; on international conference, 352; on credentials, 368.
Committees: reports of, on public outdoor relief, 28; on hospitals, 53; on insane, 62; on feeble-minded, 98; on charity organization, 109; on child-saving, 124; on State Boards, 154; on immigration, 187; on penal and reformatory systems, 202; on co-operation of women in philanthropic and reformatory work, 230; on reports from States, 256; on public outdoor relief, 313; on organization, report of, 374; on credentials, report of, 396.
Commitment of insane, 68.
Conference sermon, 20.
Contract labor, 194.
County farms, 80.
County jail system, 229.
Cowles, Dr. Edward, 75.
Cox, J. D., 246.
Crooker, J. H., 228.
Custodial Asylum at Newark, N. Y., 333, 335.
Custodial care of adult idiots, 98.

Defective Classes, the, 222.
Definition of dependent boys, 148.
Delinquent children, care of, 136.
Denver, vote to accept invitation from, 331.
Detention of insane, 68.
"Diamond Joe" Reynolds, of Arizona, 288.
Discharged convicts, 218.
Discharge of insane, 70.
"Diseases of the Mind," 6.
Discontinuance of outdoor aid, 32.
Discussion: on outdoor relief, 314; on care of the insane, 319, 320; on child problem in cities, 324; on care of imbeciles, 331; on co-operation of women, 337; on hospitals, 352; on charity organization, 360; on State Boards, 369; on prisons, 378; on immigration, 385.

Doren, Dr. G. A., 104.
Drexel Institute, 309.
"Dutch Frank," 304.

Economic view of preventive work among children, 151.
Eighth session, 345.
Eleventh session, 359.
Eliot, George, 26.
Elmira Reformatory, 216.
Elwyn Institution of Feeble Minded, 332, 334.
Emergency commitment law, 320.
English lunacy act, 75.
Epictetus, 10.
Epileptics, 287.
Epilepsy, 99.
Excelsior for mattresses, 355.
Exhibit of charities and correction, 349.
Expenses of States, how appropriated, 264.
Extract from diary of 1776, 231.

"Famine Times in Ireland," 315.
Fassett prison bill, 219, 221, 380, 382.
Fay, Mrs. Katie, 342.
Federal supervision of immigration, 388.
Feeble-minded, care of, 98.
Female physicians for the insane, 344.
Fifteenth session, 393.
First session, 303.
Flatbush Asylum, 321.
Foundlings, 131.
Fourteenth session, 384.
Fraud in administering relief, 32.
Friendly visiting, 112.

Gains of charity organization societies, 116.
Galician immigrants, 391.
George, Milton, 147.
Gheel, 66, 173, 178.
Gilder, Richard Watson, 129.
Gospel Mission, 34.
Granger, Dr. W. D., 74.
Greeley, Horace, 26.
Gundry, Dr. Richard, 253.

Harris, William T., 129.
Harrison, Mrs. U. L., 146.
Harvard University, 159.
Hawthorne, Nathaniel, 21.
Hayes, Hon. R. B., 246.
Hebrews of Russia, 368, 383, 394.
Holland practice of dealing with paupers, 315.
Holy Willie's Prayer, 27.
Homes, not institutions for children, 329.
Hospital architecture, 358.
Hospital cleanliness, 53.
Howe, Julia Ward, 24.
"How the other Half Lives," 124.
Hugo, Victor, 6.
Huntington Reformatory, 137, 142.

Illinois Industrial School for Boys, 145.
Immigrants into the various States, 283.
Immigrants, number of, 196, 199.
Immigration, restriction of, 197.
Improved tenements, 128.
Indeterminate sentence, 207.
Indiana, report from, 290.
Indianapolis Flower Mission, 360.
Indian State, an, 289.
Indians in Utah, 289.
Index of speakers and writers, 430.
Index of subjects, 432.
Industrial School for Boys, Illinois, 145.
Infants, boarding out of, 327.
In memoriam, 242.

Insane arrested on the street, what to do with them, 307, 319, 320.
Insane, care of, 62.
Insane, commitment of, 68.
Insane, discharge of, 70.
Insane Hospitals, voluntary commitment to, 71.
"Insane in Foreign Countries, The," 173.
Insane, registry of, 15.
Insane, the, according to States, 267.
Insane women, female physicians for, 68.
Insanity, increase of, 226.
Insanity in London, 225.
Insanity the result of physical disease, 322.
Inspection of borders of Canada, British Columbia, and Mexico, 193.
Insurance on life of children, 347.
Invitations, to Colorado, 319; to Washington, 330; to Nashville, Tenn., 345.
Iowa, report from, 293.
Ireland, peasantry of, 315.
Italian immigrants, 391.

Jails in Ohio, 220, 312.
James, Henry, 24.
Johns Hopkins University, 159, 313.
Johnson, Alexander, 408.
Journal of Nervous and Mental Diseases, 74.
Jukes Family, 224, 227.

Kennedy, John S., 117.
Kindergartens in various cities, 238.
Kerlin, Dr. Isaac N., 100 101.

Labor colonies of Germany, 169.
Labor of prisoners, 208.
Lallor, Dr. Joseph, 65.
Law for care of insane, 84, 85.
Lease system, 212.
Lease system in North Carolina, 281.
Legislation according to States, 284.
Letters, from George R. Davis, 349; Charles C. Bonney, 350.
"Light of Asia," 21.
List of delegates, 417.
List of members of State Boards, 427.
Livingstone, David, 25.
Lowell, Josephine Shaw, 132.

Margaret, mother of criminals, 224.
Maryland, report from, 312.
Massachusetts Institute of Technology, 366.
Massachusetts School for Feeble Minded, 332.
McDonald, Dr. Carlos F., 93.
McLean Asylum, 75.
Meath, Earl of, 171.
Medical School for Women, A, 313.
Men as Friendly Visitors, 338.
Merxplas, 168.
Methods of dealing with delinquent children, 140.
Michigan State Board, proposal to cut down salary of secretary in, 373.
Minutes and discussions, 303.
Missouri, report from, 307.
Mitchell, Sir Arthur, 173, 179.
Modern prison science, leading principles of, 214.
Montana, report from, 295.
Morganza Reform School, 143.
Mormon immigrants, 284, 389.

National Bureau of Charity and Correction, 15.
Newark, N.Y., Custodial Institution, 101, 333, 335.
New York Industrial School, 142.
New York law for care of insane, 85.
New York World, 21.
New Hampshire, report from, 308.
New Jersey, report from, 296, 309.
Ninth Session, 345.

Non-reporting States, 258.
North American Review, 13, 390.
North Carolina, report from, 310.

Oates Bill (immigration), 187, 192.
Officers for 1892, ix.
Ohio legislation on jails, 220.
Ohio, report from, 311.
Oklahoma, 285.
Omar Khayyám, 10.
Opere Pie, 180.
Oregon State Board, 370.
Organization for 1891.
Out-door relief unnecessary, 39.
Owen Bill (immigration), 187, 192.

Pads for mattresses, 355.
Parole release, 207, 211.
Parsons, Dr. Ralph L. 74, 76.
Penal and reformatory systems, 202.
Pennsylvania Children's Aid Society, 136.
Pennsylvania, report from, 298, 309.
Peeters, Dr. 173.
Petition to establish dependency parties, 149.
Philadelphia Children's Aid Society, 153.
Philadelphia House of Refuge, 143.
Physicians in county asylums, 83.
Physicians, number of, for insane, 323.
Piloty, Carl, 11.
Placing-out system in Germany, 134.
Plans for buildings for insane, 79.
Poles in Buffalo, 191.
Police matrons, 337, 338, 339, 340.
Poor-law system, 36.
Population of States, 258.
Poverty, causes of, 114.
Powell, Dr. F. M., 101.
Prepaid tickets for aliens, 191.
President's Address, 10.
Preventive work among children, economic view of, 151.
Principles of modern prison science, 214.
Prisoners' Aid Association of Rhode Island, 289.
Prison Association of Virginia, 213.
Prisoners under State care, 277.
Prison labor, 209.
Prison labor competition, 219.
Prison registration, 16.
Private asylums, 71.
Public and private charities, 115.
Public charities in Europe, 167.
Public out-door relief: arguments in favor of, 28; arguments against, 36.
Public poor, the, 269.
Puerperal mania, 64.
Putnam, Elizabeth P., 131.

Reasons for appointing women trustees of State institutions, 241.
Recent Ohio legislation, 220.
Recidivism, 17.
Reformatory at Huntington, 309.
Reform School Girls, 343.
Registration of dependent, 16.
Registry of insane, 15.
Reichenstein, Baron von, 317.
Relation of Charity Organization to social problem, 118.
Relief in work, 36.
Reports: of committee on public outdoor relief, 28; of committee on hospitals, 53; of committee on insane, 62; of committee on feeble-minded, 98; of committee on charity organization, 109; of committee on child-saving, 124; on State boards, 154; of committee on immigration, 187; of committee on penal and reformatory systems, 202; of committee on co-operation of women in philanthropic and reformatory work, 230; of secretary, 303; of committee on organization, 374, 378; of committee on reports of States, 256; of subcommittee of committee on organization, 374; of committee on credentials, 396; of treasurer, 413.
Resolutions: on alcoholic liquors, 306; on studies for Chautauqua course, 330; on placing women on boards of charities, 345; on study of penology and pauperism, 348; on International Conference of Charities and Corrections, 351; on co-operation of women, 359; on alcoholic liquors, 360; on funds of Conference, 377, 383; on charitable and prison science, 383; on Jews, 383, 394; on trap-shooting, 384, 394; of thanks, 395, 396.
Restriction of immigration, 197.
Rhode Island State Board, non-partisan, 374.
Richardson, Dr. A. B., 246.
Rights of parents, 328.
Riis, Jacob A., 124.
Robin, M. Le Pasteur, 168.
Rogers, J. Thorold, 153.
Rülf, Rabbi, 318.
"Rural Glen," 147.
Rush, Benjamin, 6.

Sailors' and Soldiers' Home, 265.
Salisbury, Albert, 104.
School age, 126.
Second session, 305.
Secretary's report, 303.
Self-commitment to hospitals, 71.
Separation in jails, 380.
Sequestration of congenital criminals, 334.
Sermon, 20.
Seventh session, 337.
Sewing machines run by electricity, 313.
Sewing women, help for, 313.
Sex, in idiocy, 223.
Sex, in insanity, 223.
Shoes made by feeble-minded, 332.
Shop work for prisoners, 217.
Signor Crispi, 181.
Sixth Session, 330.
Slums, abolition of, 135.
Smith, Dr. Stephen, 319.
Smith, James, 408.
Smithsonian Institution, 18.
Social problems, relation of, to charity organization, 118.
Société Internationale pour l'Etude des Questions d'Assistance, 318.
South Dakota State Board, 372.
Spirits in prison, 382.
State Board of North Carolina, 371.
State Boards, 258.
State boards of charities, 154.
State boards and immigration, 200.
State legislation, 284.
States, reports from, 256.
Statistical agencies, 261.
Statistics of census, 12.
Statistics of charity organization, 110.
Statistics of London insane, 225.
Sterilizing garments, 58.
Suggestions for organization of conference, 367.
Sumner, Charles, 21.
Superintendent of immigration, 192.
Syllabus of New York law, 94.

Tenements, overcrowding of, 125.
Tennessee, report from, 300.
Tenth session, 348.
Thanet, Octave, 315.
Theological seminaries of Andover, Hartford, and New York, 159.
Third session, 313.

Thirteenth session, 376.
Training School for Nurses, 358.
Tramps, 227.
Treasurer's report, 413.
Treatment of defective classes, 228.
Tribe of Ishmael, 227.
Tributes to Dr. Albert G. Byers, 242.
Tributes to Dr. Richard Gundry, 253.
Twelfth session, 367.

"United Charities Building," 117, 365.
Useful field for women, 340.

Vagrancy, premium on, 145.
Value of State board of charities, 370.
Virginia Prison Association, 213.
Visitors needed for almshouses, 340.
Voluntary commitment to insane hospitals, 71, 322.
Voluntary visitors for State wards, 328.
Von Moltke, 14.
Votes; for appointment of business committee, 303; of committee on organization, 303; for committee on time and place, 303; on time limit, 303; on verbal reports from States, 307; on printing portraits of presidents of conference, 318; that the secretary should acknowledge foreign letters, 318; to go to Denver, 331; to reprint former proceedings, 384.

Warner, Amos G., 116.
Wealthy, the, generosity of, 318.
Welcome to Indianapolis, 1–7.
Wellesley College, 159.
Wey, Dr. H. D., 100.
Whitechapel, London, 37.
Wilbur, Dr. H. B., 100.
Wilhelmsdorf, 171.
Willard Asylum, 177.
Wisconsin act for care of insane, 84.
Wisconsin change in State board, 371.
Wisconsin, report from, 302.
Wisconsin system of care for insane, 78, 87.
Women as visitors to State institutions, 340, 341.
Women in charity and reform, 230.
Women in public charities in the various States, 232–238.
Women on boards of trustees, 344.
Women on school boards, 238.
Women's Christian Temperance Union, 274.
Women's prison, Indiana, 342.
Work for Day, and Work for all the Days, 20.
Wright, Carroll D., 390.

Youth of criminals, 224.

3 gal
154+

DATE DUE
-5 JAN '13 CLM
DEMCO 38-297

3 2044 147 693 709